DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 248 582 EA 017 052

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TITLE Essays in School Administration.
PUB DATE 82
NOTE 96p.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - General (020)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Administrator Role; *Administrators; Curriculum; *Educational Administration; Educational Environment; Educational Philosophy; Grouping (Instructional Purposes); Middle Schools; Motivation; Reading Instruction; *School Administration

ABSTRACT

Eleven essays on a wide range of topics related to school administration are presented. The essays are: "Philosophy of Education and the School Administrator," "Administration and the Curriculum," "Role of Administration in the Curriculum," "Issues in School Administration," "Administration in Education," "The Middle School," "Grouping Students in Reading," "Philosophy of Education in the Curriculum," "Grouping Students for Instruction," "School Organizational Climate and the Administrator," and "Motivation and the Administrator." (DCS)

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ESSAYS IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

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1982

EA 017 052

PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION AND THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

Each school administrator functions in terms of following selected philosophies of education. A philosophy gives guidance and direction to the involved administratior. Which philosophies might be relevant for school administrators to analyze or adopt?

Realism and the Curriculum

A school administrator, following tenets of realism, generally believes that one can know the real natural and social world as it truly is. Thus, a replica of the environment can be obtained by the observer. The real world exists independently of the observer.

Since the real world can be known as it exists, the realists administrator may believe in using measurably stated objectives in teaching and learning. Thus, what exists can be identified and measured rather precisely. Science and mathematics content in particular, are specific. Other curriculum areas, such as history, geography, literature, and even values have objective content which has stood the test of time and is prized highly.

After precise objectives have been selected by the teacher, learning activities need choosing to guide each pupil to achieve chosen goals. Each learner's progress may then be evaluated in terms of the measurable objectives.

A school administrator emphasizing realism, as a philosophy of education may also believe in Management by Objectives (MBO). Measurable objectives are then selected cooperatively by administrators and teachers. The chosen ends are identified at the beginning of a new school year. As the school year progresses, administrators and teachers need to evaluate if adequate progress is being made in attaining the desired ends. Definite means need to be in evidence to achieve the measurable objectives. If the precise ends are not being achieved as the school year progresses, reasons need to be found for the

identified deficiences. Perhaps, new approaches need trying to attain desired objective goals. The real world may then be identified and recognized as it truly is. Objectivity is highly relevant to realists.

Idealism and the Curriculum

An administrator following tenets of idealism, as a philosophy of education, believes in an idea centered curriculum. Thus, one can not know the real world as it truly is. However, the perceiver receives ideas relating to what has been observed, read, and written.

Idealist administrators are strong believers in a quality general education curriculum for learners. Literature, grammar, spelling, history, geography, mathematics, and science, in particular, provide necessary learnings for pupils in moving away from being finite individuals to becoming Infinite.

Universal ideas need acquiring by pupils. The universal ideas are relevant regardless of space or time of the involved learner. Universals remain rather stable and are not subject to continuous change. The learners perception of worthwhile universal ideas, however, may change.

Vocational education during the elementary and secondary school years have little or no value to an idealist. Vocational goals can be stressed beyond the secondary years of schooling. A subject centered curriculum is relevant for pupils, according to idealists. Vital ideas might then be acquired in moving in the direction of the Infinite.

Existentialism and the Curriculum

Existentialists believe that individuals, not groups, choose their own goals in life. Life is absurd and ridiculous. Within these situations, each person needs to develop personal meanings and values in life. Goals are not

given to any person. The ends and means of living must be sought. Making moral decisions on an individual basis is central to the thinking of existentialists. Each person is responsible for decisions made. Other human beings or God cannot be blamed for the outcomes of personal decision-making. Awesome responsibilities are involved when each moral decision is made.

Existentialist administrators may well encourage each teacher to choose highly flexible objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures. The individual teacher is challenged to develop moral decisions and accept the consequences of choices made. To develop existentialist pupils, the teacher must permit learners on an individual basis to choose ends, means, and appraisal procedures within flexible limits. Pupils need to be guided to realize the world is not rational. However, each pupil must accept the consequences of personal choices made. Thus, immense responsibilities rest upon each pupil as to decisions made in the school curriculum, as well as in the curriculum of life.

Experimentalism and the Curriculum

Experimentalists believe the world of experience to represent ultimate reality. One can know that which is experienced only. The natural/social environment changes rather continuously. New problems then arise. These problems must be identified and solved. Groups, not individuals, must identify and solve related problems. Effort to solve problems comes from being interested in ongoing experiences and activities.

Experimentalist administrators emphasize working with teachers cooperatively to truly choose and resolve problems in the school and class setting. Administrators alone, definitely should not identify and solve problems. Problems and solutions will not remain stable, for change in the school

environment is continually in evidence. Curriculum and discipline problems need identification and viable solutions sought.

Pupils with teacher guidance need to identify questions and seek answers using a variety of learning activities in all curriculum areas. With pupil purpose involved in finding answers to questions and problems, effort is put forth in learning. Interest in learning then provides needed effort. The teacher definitely should not lecture subject matter content to pupils, Rather, subject matter is useful in solving problems and answering questions.

In Closing

Administrators need to study and analyze diverse philosophies of education. Accepted philosophies may then be utilized to provide for individual differences among pupils. Each learner needs to perceive interest, purpose, and motivation in learning. Optimal achievement may then be in evidence for each pupil.

ADMINISTRATION AND THE CURRICULUM

Who should be involved in making curricular decisions? There are diverse sources from which subject matter, ideas, and power might come in the decision-making arena.

Power Structure In The Curriculum

Expert power might provide impetus in attempting to solve problems in the curriculum. An administrator possessing expert power has needed understandings, skills, and attitudes in developing a quality school setting. Expert power might well include proficiency in maintaining positive discipline, adequate teaching materials and supplies, accepted means of inservice education of staff, quality custodial services, nutritious/appetizing food served in the lunchroom, positive relations with the school governing board, adequate funding for the school, and wholesome relations with the lay public.

Administrators possessing expert power are looked up to by faculty, staff, and other school workers as having leadership qualities which are truly conducive in achieving the best of objectives, learning activities, and appraisal procedures to guide optimal progress within each learner. Expert power is earned due to being a true professional. Facades are not needed. In his/her own right, the administrator possessing expert power possesses those qualities which are admirable in developing a relevant curriculum. The administrator then is an expert in the field of education. Other school workers intrinsically realize the effectiveness, efficiency, and professionalism of administrators possessing expert power.

A second type of administrators might reflect charismatic power. He/she is able to influence others due to poise, polish, and charm. School workers and the lay public are attracted to individuals possessing charisma. Seemingly

charismatic administrators have the ability to attract others to do what is deemed necessary to improve the curriculum. Forcing others to accomplish and achieve is definitely not the role of a charismatic administrator. Rather, the involved administrator has mannerisms, behavior, and approaches conducive to influencing others in a relaxed way.

Content revealed by the charismatic administrator may indicate expert knowledge, abilities, and attitudes. However, more significant than expert power is a polished performance to influence listeners. A pleasant means in changing listeners' behavior is then involved. A person possessing charisma tends to be an individual well liked by others.

A third type of administrator emphasizes coercive power. Thus, an administrator is in a position to pressure teachers, aides, custodians, and lunchroom workers to conform. The coercive administrator has adequate status to secure obedience from others. Quality relevant ideals may or may not be expressed when forcing school personnel to be obedient.

Means of punishing disobedient behavior are available and utilized to implement desire norms of the coercive administrator. Using charisma is definitely not a major goal in working with teachers and other school workers. Charismatic behavior is utilized if it assists the administrator to be more forceful or powerful in pressuring others to adopt conformity behavior.

A fourth type of administrative behavior involves legitimate power. Administrators are licensed by an accrediting agency. The license based upon completing course work in an approved college/university and appropriate internships provides the administrator with legitimate power. Teachers and other school workers realize that administrators are certified to perform a professional leadership role. Thus, the administrator possesses a selected type of power legitimized by an accrediting agency. Legitimate power may not, by itself, provide an adequate basis for teachers and other school workers to accept the leadership role

of the administrator. No doubt other types of power will need to be added, such as expert knowledge. Legitimate power plus expert power might well provide an administrator with quality leadership capabilities. Additional types of power, such as charisma, further enhances the administrator's abilities to become a proficient leader.

In Summary

Prospective administrators need to study and analyze diverse types of power in providing leadership in the school, class, and societal arena. Ultimately, an administrator needs to adopt strategies in which leadership may be provided to develop a quality curriculum to provide optimal learner progress.

ROLE OF ADMINISTRATION IN THE CURRICULUM

There are diverse roles that administrators perform in the curriculum. Certainly, the overall goal of administration is to improve the curriculum. To improve the curriculum, recommended guidelines need to be followed. Which criteria then should administrators follow?

The Administrator And The Curriculum

Innovations designed to strengthen the curriculum require dedicated leadership from the administrator. Thus, the administrator is a key individual to guide faculty members to make desired changes in the curriculum. To provide leadership, an administrator must be knowledgeable and skillful to lead faculty members to move from the present status quo to a desired norm. Objectives in the curriculum eventually provide the meter-stick against which all changes need evaluation. Cooperatively, faculty members with administrative leadership need to develop viable ends. Recommended standards need to be followed in developing desired objectives. Faculty members, with administrative leadership, need to have much input into developing the curriculum. The standards might well include the following:

1. each participant must actively participate in diverse sessions devoted to improving the curriculum.
2. no one should dominate any one committee session.
3. the administrator needs to encourage all participants to participate.
4. ideas need to circulate within a committee, and not move between a participant and administrator only.
5. participants need to stay on the topic being pursued and not digress to other facets of information.

Objectives In The Curriculum

Administrators then have vital leadership roles in guiding faculty members to determine significant objectives. The agreed upon objectives must reflect

that which is worthy for students to learn. Competent faculty members with administrative leadership must develop viable goals for student attainment. It is important for faculty members to weed out what is trivia and deadwood in each course offering.

The administrator must leave leeway for each faculty member to emphasize personal desired philosophies in the teaching arena. These philosophies may include the following:

1. experimentalism, in which ultimate reality is represented by experience. Change is experienced by all. Thus, problems arise and need solutions.

2. idealism, in which ideas represent ultimate reality. One can know ideas but not the natural/social environment in and of itself. Relevant universal ideas need emphasis and not specifics in the curriculum. The universals tend to endure in time and space.

3. realism, in which the knower can know the natural/social environment as it truly is. Thus, precise, accurate knowledge may be known by the knower. Measureable objectives might be written for students to attain.

4. existentialism, in which the individual makes choices and decisions. The choices and decisions must be moral, and yet no guidelines exist as to what can be called morality. Truth then becomes subjective to the knowers. Individuals live in an irrational world.

Learning Activities And Evaluation Procedures

Administrators may provide leadership in being supportive to purchasing and utilizing a variety of learning activities by involved instructors. Textbooks need to be carefully evaluated and chosen. Additional learning activities to be utilized in classroom instruction include relevant films, filmstrips, slides, tapes, records, and transparencies. Each learning activity emphasized in teaching and learning should guide learners to achieve viable objectives. Student questions and comments must be encouraged in developing the curriculum.

Administrators should encourage instructors to provide adequately for diverse levels of student performance. A variety of activities should assist in guiding each learner to achieve optimally.

Administrators need to encourage instructors to utilize diverse evaluation procedures to ascertain student achievement. The only justification to evaluate achievement is to determine how much each student has learned. Instructors should evaluate not only subject matter learned by students, but also skills and attitudes acquired. Subject matter learned includes valuable facts, concepts, and generalizations. Appropriate skills to achieve include problem solving, creative and critical thinking, and using the library effectively. Relevant attitudes need to include appreciations for subject matter acquired in a given class, as well as a desire for life-long learning.

The Administrator And Developing Motivation

Developing feelings of high morale within faculty members is indeed a worthwhile goal. Faculty members possessing an adequate self-concept may exhibit a zest for doing a good job of instruction.

The administrator needs to take time to complement faculty members who prepare thoroughly for each day of quality teaching. Oral comments, as well as notes of commendation, may be presented to instructors who excel in the teaching arena. An end result may well be that instructors possess a higher energy level for the professional academic and/or vocational world in preparing objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures.

Administrators also have significant roles to play in each of the following endeavors to increase motivation of faculty members:

1. attempt to achieve an adequate level of salary and level of remuneration for professional services performed by faculty members. Low morale and low motivation definitely may come about if salary schedules are low in

payment to professional faculty members. Inadequate reimbursement for professional teaching may require that selected faculty members obtain a second job to maintain a desired standard of living.

2. reward faculty members, orally and/or in writing, for publishing manuscripts in professional education and academic journals.

3. praise faculty members who speak in a meaningful manner to diverse civic and professional groups on educational and academic topics.

The Administrator And Problem Solving

Faculty members, as do all individuals in society, experience problems in developing and implementing the curriculum. Administrative support needs to be in evidence for instructors who truly are innovative in improving course offerings. Innovations being tested in teaching/learning situations must:

1. guide learners to perceive purpose or reasons for learning.

2. assist students to attach meaning and understanding to subject matter being acquired.

3. facilitate in the development of positive attitudes within each learner.

4. attempt to capture student interests.

5. guide students to achieve skills in critical thinking, creative thinking, and problem solving.

Emotional support from administrators can do much to facilitate recommended curricular innovations in the educational arena. Problems that arise in developing the curriculum need to be identified and relevant solutions sought. Administrators become key individuals in lending support to faculty members in identifying and solving problems.

Additional areas which require the utilization of problem solving methods involving administrators and faculty members include the following:

1. absenteeism and tardiness on the part of students.

2. disruptions by students in the class setting.

3. deficient test results and inadequately developed term projects by students.

Flexible steps of problem solving which may be followed by faculty members and administrators include the following:

1. identify the problem or problem areas involved in the curriculum.
2. gather information and data in attempting to solve the problem(s).
3. develp a hypothesis or answer to the identified problem.
4. test the hypothesis in actual, real-life situations

In Conclusion

The administrator has definite roles to perform in guiding faculty members to improve the curriculum. These roles include:

1. assisting faculty members to develop purposeful objectives for students to attain.
2. supporting the utilizing of a variety of learning activities for student interaction and learning. Emphasizing the use of diverse valid and reliable appraisal techniques to notice learner progress.
3. motivating faculty members to increased energy levels to engage in quality instructional procedures.
4. developing problem solving attitudes within faculty members.

ISSUES IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

There are selected issues in administration which need attempts at synthesis. Which issues then might be studyied, analyzed, and resolved?

I. Role of the Administrator

There are numerous roles performed by individuals in school administration. A major dichotomy pertains to be the degree that administrators should be involved in curriculum improvement. Toward one end of the continuum, an administrator may continually be talking with diverse teachers involving recent trends in curriculum development. The trends, among others, might include programmed learning, inductive methods of teaching, use of learning centers, instructional management systems and mastery learning, Individually Prescribed Instruction (IPI), individualized reading, nongraded schools, team teaching, Peer Mediated Instruction (PMI), and Management by Objectives (MBO). The administrator might encourage teacher involvement in workshops and faculty meetings pertaining to each of the above named innovative means of instruction. The school administrator may also visit teachers to observe actual teaching, followed by a conference with that involved teacher. Routine administrative is completed prior to and after any given school day.

Toward the other end of the continuum, an administrator may believe that quality teachers were hired initially and each will be motivated to do the best possible to provide for individual differences among learners. This administrator may well leave curriculum matters in the hands of teachers. He/she rather will supervise custodial services to notice if a school building

is kept adequately tidy for pupil learning. Also, the administrator here encourages a cafeteria/lunch room situation in which learners have wholesome eating quarters together with proper manners displayed. The administrator might also notice that school repairs are made when necessary, as well as learner permanent records are kept accurately and comprehensively. Additional responsibilities might include:

1. answering all/most telephone calls personally.
2. attempting to be entirely responsible for the public relations domain.
3. conveying messages by telephone to parents and other interested parties.
4. typing, in degrees, all correspondence involving patrons in the community, as well as with the business world.

As a model, Knezevich[1] wrote the following possible contributions of administrators:

- Exists to implement the decisions of a legislative body.
- Influences the results to be achieved, the direction to be pursued, and the priorities to be recognized within the enterprise.
- Has a decisive impact on strategies selected and utilized to reach predetermined objectives.
- Determines, in large measure, the organizational climate and working relationships.
- Can help to make personnel employed more productive (or, when it falters, less effective).
- Helps to assemble and to insure prudent use of resources.
- Unifies and coordinates the human and material resources available to the enterprise.
- Appraises the quality and quantity of outcomes actually accomplished.
- Shapes, to a considerable degree, the image and prestige of the enterprise.

II. Activity-centered versus Subject-centered Curriculum.

Should learners be active or passive beings in the curriculum? There are selected administrators who believe in an activity centered curriculum. Thus, pupils with teacher guidance plan, implement, and evaluate diverse ongoing and completed projects. These projects might involve:

[1]Stephen J. Knezevich, Administration of Public Education, Third Edition. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1975, page 3.

1. art experiences
2. construction work
3. processing materials
4. dramatic activities
5. work with puppets and marionettes
6. music and rhythmic experiences
7. excursions
8. simulation and games.

Administrators emphasizing an activity centered curriculum emphasize the following philosophical beliefs:

1. pupils need to be involved in making curricular decisions.
2. subject matter is not learned for its own sake, but rather as a means to an end, such as gathering information to participate in in an activity or complete a project.
3. interests of learners can be developed and maintained if pupils are actively involved in learning.
4. purpose is involved in learning if pupils make choices and decisions.
5. meaningful learnings accrue if pupils accept that which is being planned and completed in terms of projects and activities.

Administrators in schools reveal preferences for either an activity-centered or subject-centered curriculum through verbal and nonverbal cues.

Administrators advocating a subject-centered curriculum believe that essential, basic ideas for learners to attain exist in reputable textbooks, library books, encyclopedias, and other vital reference sources. Subject matter that has endured in space and time is preferred to that which changes rather continuously and is subject to modification. Thus, pupils need to acquire subject matter to become proficient citizens in society at a later time. The teacher needs to stimulate pupils to become motivated learners. Quality teaching may bring forth revelant ideas involving essential subject matter.

Why do selected administrators emphasize pupils learning significant, enduring subject matter?

1. The learner presently needs to acquire much subject matter in order to use, as an adult, what has been learned previously.

2. Learners need to be relatively passive in nature to achieve worthwhile content. Self-discipline and obedience are desired traits which might be developed as a result of studying subject matter.

3. relevant ideas are recorded in reputable textbooks and other printed materials. Thus, trivia is minimized in ongoing units of study involving subject matter content.

4. stability of subject matter in the curriculum is to be desired, as compared to projects/activities which are transitory, unimportant, and changing.

5. adult minds are in a better position to determine relevancy in the curriculum, as compared to the thoughts, ideas, and wishes of learners.

Salzer and Drdek[2] wrote the following involving open-ended standard forms of schooling:

> The most significant differences between open, or informal, approaches and standard forms of schooling have to do with the matter of choice on the part of pupils. In the traditional school nearly all decisions have been made by the teacher or the teacher's superiors, while in informally organinzed classes children have a substantial degree of control over learning activities and the conditions governing their work.
>
> In the open classroom pupils do not have absolute freedom, of course, for the teacher represents society's interest in seeing that the basic skills are learned, knowledge gained, and positive attitudes developed. But the informal-classroom teacher recognizes that children learn in many ways and that learning may proceed better if the pupils have some control over their time schedules and the physical space and facilities of the room.
>
> When children have the opportunity to choose among alternatives and receive guidance in making the choices most appropriate to their developmental levels, they grow in that ability. In the open classroom, pupils are typically given some control over the disposition of time, with occasional interventions by the teacher. The child's daily or weekly schedule may include regular commitments, with other segments planned cooperatively by pupil and teacher. For a significant portion of the hours spent in school, however, the pupil has the responsibility of deciding how to use the available time to meet the teacher's expectations and his or her goals.

III. Administration: Art or Science

There are selected educators who believe that administration of schools is an art, and not a science. Thus, the administrator creates his/her own

[2]Richard T. Salzer and Richard E. Drdek, "Organizing for Learning," in Walter T. Petty (Editor), Curriculum for the Modern Elementary School. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1976, pages 58 and 59.

roles in the school setting. Creativity is a key concept to emphasize when advocating administration as being an art. Tiedt and Tiedt[3] listed the following characteristics of creative beings:

1. Nonconformity of ideas, but not necessarily of dress and behavior.
2. Egotism and feelings of destiny.
3. Great curiosity, desire to discover the answer.
4. Sense of humor and playfulness.
5. Perseverance on self-started projects.
6. Intense emotions, sincerity.
7. Tendency to be shy.
8. Lack of rigidity.

In being a creative person, the administrator realizes that no absolute or formal standards exist which must be followed to be a quality leader. Rather open ended situations are in evidence. Flexibility is a key concept to follow. Authoritarianism as a concept is to be frowned upon. The school administrator develops new hypotheses and tests them in contextual situations. Feedback is then obtained to notice how successful implemented decisions were in improving the curriculum.

There are numerous means available to an administrator to improve the curriculum. Among others, the following are possibilities:

1. workshops and faculty meetings for faculty members.
2. teachers visiting innovative classrooms.
3. video-taping teaching performance and providing feedback to the involved teacher.
4. teachers on a given grade level cooperatively developing resource units to be used in the class setting.
5. faculty members involved in taking teaching performance tests.

In each of the above named plans of inservice education, there are no definite standards to follow. The creative administrator then realizes that administration is an art rather than a science. There are, however, selected

[3]Iris M. Tiedt and Lowell Tiedt, Contemporary English in the Elementary School. Second edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975 page 151.

broad guidelines for the administrator to follow. These might include:

1. guiding faculty members to perceive purpose in inservice education programs.

2. assisting teachers to implement into classroom teaching salient concepts and generalizations achieved through inservice education.

3. helping teachers to engage in self-appraisal in ongoing units of study involving teaching and learning.

4. guiding faculty members in selecting learning activities which truly provide for individual differences among learners.

Ediger[4] wrote the following pertaining to a model workshop, as one example, involving inservice education.

> 1. The theme of the social studies workshop should be decided upon cooperatively by the participants. Thus, relevant themes may include (a) implementing recommended trends in teaching elementary school social studies, (b) using inquiry approaches in teaching social studies, (c) developing teaching units and resource units, (d) using problem solving approaches in teaching-learning situations, (e) providing for individual differences in reading social studies content, (f) implementing concepts pertaining to nongradedness and open space education, (g) using team teaching in the social studies, (h) updating procedures to evaluate pupil achievement, and (i) utilizing appropriate sequential learning experiences in the social studies.
>
> 2. The general session should be utilized to help participants identify relevant problems in teaching social social studies. Thus, teachers may identify such relevant problems as (a) stimulating pupil interest in the social studies, (b) guiding the slow learner in achieving to his optimum, (c) developing meaningful tasks for pupils in open space education, (d) planning objectives, learning experiences, and evaluation procedures cooperatively in a true team teaching situation, (e) coping with discipline problems in the class setting, (f) helping the disadvantaged child, and (g) making teaching aids to provide for individual differences in the social studies.
>
> 3. Committees should be formed to work on problems identified in the general session. Committee membership should (a) be voluntary, (b)meet the needs of participants, and (c) help individuals to solve problems in teaching social studies.
>
> 4. Individual study is necessary in providing for individual differences among participants in the workshop. Individuals may work in the direction of solving problems pertaining to (a) selecting relevant social studies units, (b) choosing social studies textbooks and other reading materials appropriate for a given set of learners, (c) evaluating the current social studies program in terms of criteria, and (d) maintaining an updated social studies curriculum.

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[4]Marlow Ediger, The Elementary Curriculum, A Handbook. Kirksville, Missouri: Simpson Publishing Company, 1977, page 133-134.

The above named criteria must be considered in a flexible manner. Thus, considerable leeway exists for administrators being truly creative in developing the curriculum.

Toward the other end of the spectrum, there are selected educators advocating that education is a science, rather than an art. The administrator's goal is to guide teachers to write objectives in teaching in measurable terms. Perhaps, the administrator believes strongly in mastery learning. Thus, objectives may need to be written in measurable terms at least one semester, prior to their implementation in classroom teaching. The ends are arranged hiearchically in a sequential manner. Each pupil needs to attain a minimal number of objectives before being promoted to the next grade level. Or, a selected number of ends must be achieved before successfully completing a semester, or entire course.

The teacher selects vital learning activities to guide learners to attain a specific end. If a pupil is successful in goal attainment, he/she may then achieve the next sequential end. If a student did not attain an objective, he/she may need a different instructional strategy to achieve that same goal. Only, if an objective is attained may the learner progress to the next sequential goal.

James Popham[5] emphasizes the following criteria for administrators in supervising of teachers who utilize measurable stated objectives:

> Function One. A criterion-referenced instructional supervisor must help the teacher select more defensible educational objectives. The supervisor and teacher:
>
> 1. identify any curricular constraints
> 2. state all objectives operationally
> 3. consider alternative objectives
> 4. evaluate and decide on each potential objective.

[5]James Popham, Instructional Supervision, A Criterion-Referenced Strategy. Los Angelos: Vimcet Associates, 1969, filmstrip and tape.

Function Two. A criterion-referenced supervisor assists the teacher in achieving the teacher's instructional objectives.

The supervisor:

1. determines the teachers objectives
2. secures evidence regarding their achievement.
3. looks for undesirable side effects.
4. suggests alternative procedures for unachieved objectives

IV. Grouping Pupils for Instruction

Any administrator is faced with the problem of how to group learners for teaching and learning. There are numerous possibilities. Each plan has its pros and cons.

One issue pertains to homogeneous versus heterogeneous grouping. In homogeneous grouping in any curriculum area, pupils are as alike as possible in knowledge and skills possessed. Uniformity is then wanted in terms of understandings and abilities possessed. It might be easier for a teacher to plan objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures if a class is relatively similar in academic progress. Many teachers find it difficult to provide for inidividual differences if a wide range of achievement among learners is in evidence in a classroom.

Toward the other end of the continuum, selected administrators favor heterogeneous grouping. Learners in a class then possess mixed progress levels. The range of achievement might be from below average, to average, to talented learners all being taught in one classroom. In society, individuals interact with others regardless of ability levels. This is a necessity when taking care of personal and social needs in life's settings, outside the local school environment.

Ragan and Shepherd[6] listed the following advantages and disadvantages

[6]William Ragan and Gene Shepherd, Modern Elementary Curriculum. Fifth edition. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston, 1977, pages 125-127.

of homogeneous as well as heterogeneous grouping:

Advantages Claimed for Homogeneous Grouping

1. The teacher who has a group of abler pupils can challenge these pupils to work up to their capacity by using more difficult materials, expecting them to progress more rapidly from one level of difficulty to another, and requiring a higher quality of performance.
2. The teacher who has a group of less capable pupils can gear the instruction to their level of ability by using easier materials, giving them more time to progress from one level of difficulty to another, and setting more realistic standards for performance.
3. Differentiated instruction in terms of ability and effort enhance equality of opportunity for pupils with wide variations in ability.
4. Parents, especially those whose children are in the upper ability group, generally favor the plan.
5. Teachers, who are inclined to hope that some plan will be found to give them a group of pupils who are somewhat alike in ability, generally favor the plan.
6. It is more true to life to have pupils compete with those who are somewhere near their own level of ability; slow pupils particularly have better opportunities to become leaders in their own groups.
7. Teachers have an opportunity to do a better job of teaching the skill subjects when the pupils in their classes do not vary so widely in ability.
8. The teacher has a better opportunity to work with individuals when the range of ability in the class is reduced somewhat.

Limitations Claimed for Homogeneous Grouping

1. Grouping pupils into high, average, and low groups does not significantly reduce variations among the pupils in these groups: teachers must still provide differentiated instruction within these groups.
2. The plan will not accomplish the purpose of providing instruction for each pupil according to his ability unless the materials provided for each group are suitable for pupils of that general level of ability; this is not always done.
3. The plan violates the pupils' right to be different; when they are labeled slow, average, or bright, they begin to think of themselves in these terms and begin to try to be like others in their group.
4. The plan pays little attention to any characteristic of a pupil other than the trait used as the basis for grouping; there is evidence that pupils with similar scores on intelligence tests may differ widely with respect to other characteristics.
5. It is difficult to find teachers who are willing to work only with slow groups.
6. Ability grouping is a form of segregation; the pupils in the high ability group generally come from families at the higher socioeconimic level.

7. Parents frequently object to having their children assigned to the slow group.
8. There is no evidence to support the contention that higher achievement occurs as a result of homogeneous grouping.

Advantages Claimed for Heterogeneous Grouping

1. The interaction of the various ability levels contributes to development and achievement.
2. Heterogeneous groups are more like the relationships in life.
3. The models and alternatives available to pupils and teachers are more numerous.
4. Some research studies generally favor social, affective, and maturational advantages for children in heterogeneous groups.

Disadvantages Claimed for Heterogeneous Grouping

1. The research evidence concerning achievement generally suggests that there is no difference between the two grouping plans.
2. The wider range of variations in achievement needs and capacities makes it difficult for the teacher to provide for the individualization of instruction.
3. The pupils who learn more slowly are less likely to have opportunities for leadership and success because of the presence of quicker pupils.

Other issues involved in grouping pertain to the pros and cons of:

1. team teaching
2. the nongraded school
3. interage grouping
4. the dual progress plan
5. learning centers and open spaces.
6. computer assisted instruction.

V. Marking and Reporting Learner Progress

How should pupils be graded in school work? There are selected administrators who believe that students whould be graded in terms of effort put forth. Thus, a slow learner might receive the top grades given if he/she achieves optimally, regardless of ability levels. Average and talented achievers, of course, may also receive the best grades given if they achieve as well as possible, individually. Conversely, slow, average, and fast learners might

receive lower grades, if effort is lacking.

Toward the other end of the continuum, certain administrators advocate giving top achievers A grades, less effective achievers B grades, while the remainder might receive C, D, or even F grades, depending upon achievement. Thus, regardless of abilities possessed, pupils might be graded on what would be called a bell shaped curve. Thus, there will be a few A grades given, slightly more B grades, the majority will receive C grades, followed by students who receive D grades being equal in number, approximately, to those receiving B grades. A few receive F grades. The distribution of grades may well represent the normal distribution curve, also called the bell-shaped curve.

There are selected schools utilizing both philosophies of grading, e.g. grading learners in terms of effort put forth as well as being compared with other classmates in terms of academic achievement.

Which means should be used to report pupil progress to parents? The report card is an older method in reporting learner achievement. One problem, among others, pertains to how many categories in any one curriculum area, should parents know about pupil achievement: for example, in the curriculum area of reading, a single grade of A, B, C, D, or F could be recorded by the teacher for each pupil. A question might then arise pertaining to the meaning of that single letter grade. Are there component analyzed parts which make up the reading curriculum? The answer definitely is yes, Thus, the following categories in word recognition could appear in a report card in reporting pupil progress in the curriculum area of reading:

1. phonetic analysis or phonics
2. syllabication
3. structural analysis
4. picture clues
5. context clues
6. configuration clues

In addition to word recognition techniques, comprehension skills, as categories, could also appear on report cards to report pupil progress to

parents. These include:

1. reading to acquire facts
2. scanning or skimming
3. gaining sequential ideas
4. acquiring main ideas
5. reading critically
6. creative reading
7. recreational reading
8. reading to solve problems

The above named categories in word recognition and comprehension involve the curriculum area of reading only. There are numerous other academic areas which need to appear on report cards to report pupil progress to parents. There are definite questions which might be asked pertaining to a categories approach in reporting learner progress to parents. These include:

1. What would be a reasonable number of categories on a report card for teachers to assess learner progress in?

2. How many specific categories evaluated might parents truly understand in how well their offspring are doing?

3. Are parents able to attach meaning to each category, when a realistic number appear on a report card?

A major problem then pertains to a reasonable number of categories for teachers to mark to report learner progress to parents, as well as a reasonable number which parents understand in realizing how well their child is progressing in school.

Additional issues in reporting learner progress to parents involve:

1. How should parent-teacher conferences be conducted to truly work in the direction in offering the best curriculum possible for each student?

2. When might the telephone be utilized to report learner progress to parents:

3. Might the writing of letters to parents assist in clarifying how well a learner is doing in the school/class setting?

In Summary

There are diverse issues that need resolving as to the duties and responsibilities of administrators. Each role needs to be analyzed. Attempts then need to be made to synthesize that which is unresolved. Exemplorary role models need developing which assist teachers to achieve optimally. Each teacher needs to select the best in terms of objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures for individual learners.

Diverse philosophies in education need to be studied. Ultimately, the philosophy or philosophies adopted should guide in developing a curriculum which provides for interests, needs, and purposes of each student.

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ADMINISTRATION IN EDUCATION

Each administrator selects and implements selected philosophical strands of thought in the decision-making arena. A single school of philosophy may be followed. Or, an eclectic approach might be utilized in that several philosophical schools of thought are inherent to make decisions. Whichever means are used, each decision made rests upon philosophy more so than objectivity or empirical means.

Realism and the Curriculum

A realist administrator advocates that faculty members state objectives in measureable terms. The instructor then chooses learning activities for learners to attain the precise ends. After instruction, the instructor measures if specific objectives have been attained. If attained, learners invididually are ready to move on to the next sequential end. New learning activities might be necessary for unsuccessful learners in goal attainment.

Realists believe the objective, real world can be known by learners as it truly is. Thus, goals can be selected which are objective, independent of any observer. The personal feelings and values of instructors must be minimized in choosing objectives for learner attainment, according to realists. There are objectives which need discovering. The objectives represent reality as it is and as it exists. Personal biases and prejudices have no room in a realist's curriculum. The ends of instruction, then, are truly objective. After instruction, the instructor may measure if goal attainment has occured. Measurement results are obtained objectively, regardless of personal perceptions possessed by the appraiser.

The scientific, objective world is reality for realists. Thus, science and mathematics become highly significant curriculum areas. Natural phenomena are observable and describable. There, of course, are new discoveries in the world of science. Human beings continually need to learn more about nature and

and its laws. New phenomena must be continually discovered in the real world of science. Mathematics is orderly, precise, and is the language of science.

Other curriculum areas also contain precise, objectve subject matter. These include history (accurately described names, dates, places, and events are in evidence), geography (precise geographical phenomena, such as plains, plateaus, hills, rivers, valley, and lakes, among others), grammar and usage (sentence patterns and methods of expanding sentences are describable) and political science (describable governmental institutions). Even standards of morality that have stood the test of time, may be objectified as they exist in society.

Realist administrators may tend to deemphasize

1. general objectives in teaching-learning situations.
2. subjective knowledge consisting of opinions and feelings of individuals and groups.
3. ideas that cannot be tested in a laboratory or societal setting.
4. pupil-teacher planning in which processes are stressed to the exclusion of objective products.

Experimentalism and the Curriculum

Experimentalists believe in a continually changing environment. Since scenes and situations change, new problems arise. The problems need identification. Related data or information need to be acquired. After which, a hypothesis needs developing in answer to the problematic situation. The hypothesis needs testing in society. If evidence warrants, the hypothesis should be revised. Otherwise, it may be utilized again in a new problematic situation.

Society definitely does not stay stable or static, but change is a key concept in experimentalist thinking. Effort or purpose is perceived by learners as they sense reasons for identifying and solving problems. Interest is then inherent in learning. Interest brings forth and is not separated from effort.

What is reality in the world of experimentalism is that which can be experienced. The learner cannot know the real world objectively as it truly is, according to experimentalists. One, however, can experience social and natural phenomena.

School and society should not be separated entities. Thus, problems, issues, and trends in society become subject matter for learner acquisition. Subject matter is instrumental to the solving of problems. It is definitely not an end, in and of itself.

Experimentalists tend to deemphasize the following in the curriculum:

1. subject matter learned for its own sake. Rather, subject matter needs to be gained to solve relevant societal problems,
2. drill and practice in the curriculum
3. dividing the curriculum into specific academic areas. Subject matter becomes significant in problem solving. Whatever content is needed is used, regardless of which academic area is important at a given time. Thus, in all reality, academic areas lose their boundaries and borders.
4. teachers selecting objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures. Rather pupils must be guided to identify and solve problems. Learner, rather than sole teacher purpose is important in the curriculum.
5. individual decisions rather than committee endeavors. In society, committees identify and attempt to solve problems. Thus, pupils in committees need to be involved in problems solving activities.

Existentialism and the Curriculum

Existentialist administrators believe in the individual, himself/herself, making choices and decisions. There are no ethical or moral guidelines that are absolutes. The person must develop quality criteria to follow in life.

These standards should not come from other human beings, nor from the Infinite. To have others make choices for the personal self makes one less than human. To be human means to choose and to make decisions. The chooser, alone, is responsible for choices made. No other being can or must assume the consequences of personal decisions made.

Each person then must make moral choices in a complete atmosphere of freedom. Choices are made in an irrational, not a rational environment. Dread and anxiety may be inherent in making these decisions. Choices made can well make for feelings of awe. The consequences of a choice may result in alienation and not necessarily in feelings of friendship and happiness.

Existentialist administrators frown upon the following:

1. the teacher choosing objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures with little or no learner involvement.
2. large group instruction and committee work emphasis with little or no learner decision-making.
3. rote learning and memorization of subject matter.
4. objective academic area (science and mathematics, in particular) emphasis with a deemphasis upon subjective content (art, music, literature and drama).
5. measurabley stated predetermined objectives for learner attainment.

Idealism and the Curriculum

Idealist administrators believe that ideas pertaining to the natural and social world can be known. The real world as it truly is cannot be known. An idea centered curriculum then becomes important.

Human beings are finite, limited individuals. A quality subject centered curriculum may guide learners continually to move in the direction of the

Infinite. Which subject matter areas should provide learners an idea centered curriculum?

Subject matter chosen should represent stability of content. Continuously changing ideas do not represent the stableness that idealists seek. Subject matter chosen for pupil learning needs to represent universality of ideas. Thus, relevant learnings are significant, not only for the present, but also have endured in space and time. What is important to learn has stood the test of time within universal geographical regions.

A study of history and geography has been important for educated people through the ages and should guide learners to achieve in the direction of the Infinite. Mathematics has relevant generalizations and universal ideas for learner attainment. To be able to express oneself in a less finite way, the language arts areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing become highly significant. Universal subject matter in science and health might also assist learners to achieve worthwile content in moving away from being finite and in the direction of the Infinite.

Idealists tend to frown at the following in the curriculum:

1. subject matter that is in a state of flux and continual revision.
2. specific facts which do not relate to broader generalizations and universal application.
3. recent literature in diverse academic areas to the exclusion of worthwhile enduring ideas of the past.
4. subject matter studied to solve problems only, to the exclusion of attaining content for its own sake.
5. emphasis placed upon objects and the objective world of science and mathematics to the exclusion of enduring content in the social sciences, the humanities, and the fine arts.

What is relevant to idealists is (a) universal, not specific (b) stable, not transitory (c) abstract, not concrete and (d) not easily observable, but needs depth seeking and searching.

In Summary

Each administrator adheres to selected principles, rules, and generalizations in the making of decisions. Thus, guidance and direction provides impetus in making choices in school and in society.

Administrators need to study and appraise diverse philosophical schools of thought in the philosophical domain. Ultimately, choices need to be made as to which philosophical school(s) of thought harmonizes best with the perception of the decision-maker in the curriculum.

THE MIDDLE SCHOOL

The Middle School, generally involving learners in grades six through eight, has gained some prominence in recent years. Reasons given for emphasizing the middle school rather than the more traditional junior high school include the following:

> Unquestionably, the middle school movement has been a force in education. It has focused national attention upon the long neglected early adolescent age group; forged a coalition of teachers, scholars, and researchers, concerned with the well-being of these students; and made proposals, and developed plans for improving their education.[1]

Additional reasons include:

1. The middle school should provide adequately for learners within a specific age group, learners in grades six through eight. The junior high school has become too much like the senior high school, with its emphasis upon the separate subjects curriculum and competitive athletics. This does not guide learners to develop well academically, socially, emotionally, and physically in terms of student growth and development characteristics.

2. Teachers and administrators need to specialize in teaching a given set of learners. Thus, educators, in their specialized undergraduate and graduate curriculum, may truly teach learners well in grades six through eight.

Issues in the Middle School

There are numerous issues which need resolving in grouping learners for instruction. The issues to be discussed involve the middle school-junior high school controversy.

First of all, the cost of constructing new school buildings may be high. Thus, it would appear that if a present junior high school building is in reasonable quality, or repair or modifications can effectively be made, that building should be utilized in teaching and learning.

[1]John Arnold, "Rhetoric and Reform in Middle Schools", Phi Delta Kappan, March, 1982, pages 453-456.

Perhaps, modifications in the curriculum can be made in which junior high school pupils may experience vital objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures. What is then emphasized in ongoing units of study might then harmonize with growth and development characteristics of junior high school students.

Secondly, should learners in grades six through eight be housed and taught in a separate school building (the middle school) as contrasted with those students in the present junior high school years (grades seven through nine)? In other words, is the age difference that much greater between the two plans of grouping learners for instruction to warrant making selected changes? It almost appears that regardless of the middle school or the junior high school plan of organization, the teacher needs to provide for the interests, needs, and purposes of each learner. Each student needs to achieve optimally in every curriculum area.

Thirdly, if junior high school teachers are not able to provide adequately for each pupil, can middle school teachers do better? Regardless of the middle school or the junior high school plan of organization, each teacher needs to guide optimal pupil achievement intelluctually, physically, socially, and emotionally. Each teacher needs to develop and implement a philosophy of providing for individual differences.

Fourthly, a quality middle school needs to have effective supervisory leadership. The supervisor needs to stimulate teachers to develop relevant objectives, learning activities and evaluation procedures. Might an effective junior high school principal be able to provide equally proficient leadership? A plan for grouping learners may possess a name or title such as 'the middle school'. However, teaching-learning strategies may be no more or even less effective as compared to a comparable junior high school. Thus, a middle school might be justifiable if it can truly provide a learning environment guiding optimal learner progress for pre and early adolescents. William E. Klingele[3] writes:

Modern middle school philosophy is based upon the needs of preadolescent and adolescent youths, often referred to as tranescents. The middle school should be designated to separate these transescent-age youngsters from the younger elementary school children as well as the older high school adolescents. A main theme in the philosophy of the middle school is that it provides concern for the identity, self-concept, and personal security of the students it serves.

The middle school program is highly child-centered with an emphasis on learning how to learn as opposed to rote learning. It is characterized by a great deal of student independence in which much of the responsibility for learning is placed upon the student. Much emphasis is placed on allowing students to explore and create on their own pace, thus allowing for individual differences. Students often have input into determining the schedule, which is characterized by a high degree of flexibility.

The middle school makes extensive use of multimaterial approaches, team teaching, and variable group size. The school is staffed with specially trained teachers, administrators, and auxiliary personnel who seek to provide a program to assist transescents in making the transition from childhood dependence to adult independence, helping them bridge the gap between elementary school and high school.

Fifthly, ideals stated for middle school implementation may not be feasible under selected circumstances. Thus, class size as to numbers of learners in a set may well inhibit learners realizing desired objectives. Or, selected students might continually disrupt a class and hinder other learners from achieving optimally. A classroom may lack reading and non-reading materials to provide for individual differences among learners. Selected students may not be adequately mature to benefit from learning activities in which personal choices might be made, such as in the use of learning centers and open space education. Then too, teachers individually possess diverse philosophies of education. Philosophies, such as the following might be stressed by diverse teachers:

1. an activity centered curriculum. Pupils with teacher guidance may cooperatively plan, carry out, and evaluate purposeful projects in ongoing units of study. These activities may well include learners working on construction projects, art experiences, dramatic activities, and problem solving methods involving specific units of study.

[2] William E. Klingele, Teaching in Middle Schools, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1979, page 3.

2. an essentialist curriculum. Teachers and supervisors select, prior to instruction, vital objectives for pupil attainment. The objectives chosen generally reflect subject matter involving the three r's (reading, writing, and arithmetic). The teacher may choose learning activities for students to attain precise objectives. After which, the teacher might appraise if a learner has/has not achieved a specific objective. New teaching strategies need utilizing for pupils who did not achieve a specific end.

3. a problem solving curriculum. Learners with teacher guidance identify relevant problems. Data is gathered from a variety of reference sources to answer the problem area. After which, a hypothesis is developed. The hypothesis is tested, and revised, if necessary.

4. a vocationally oriented curriculum. Relevant objectives are chosen pertaining to diverse significant careers in the world of work. Each student selects tasks relating to vital concerns in career education with instructor guidance. The learner, as well as the instructor, appraise the former's progress in attaining stated objectives. Practicality is a major concept to emphasize in career education. That which is functional and useful in society is then emphasized in units on career education.

The principal of the school must provide leadership in developing the curriculum so that each learner may achieve optimally. Roe and Drake[4] write the following relevant duties of principals:

1. Stimulate and motivate staff to maximum performance.
2. Develop with the staff a realistic and objective system of accounting for learning(as contrasted to merely monitoring programs and instructional processes in input terms as prescribed by the central office).
3. Develop cooperatively operable assessment procedures for ongoing programs to identify and suggest alternatives for improving weak areas.
4. Work with staff in developing and implementing the evaluation of the staff.
5. Work with staff in formulating plans for evaluating and reporting student progress.
6. Provide channels for involvement of the community in the operation of the school.

[3] William H. Roe and Thelbert L. Drake, The Principalship. New York: The Macmillian Company, 1980, page 15.

7. Encourage continuous study of curricular and instructional innovations and provide help and resources for the establishment of those that are most promising.

8. Provide leadership to students in helping them to develop a meaningful but responsible student government.

9. Establish a professional learning resources center and expedite its use.

10. Develop cooperatively with the staff a dynamic professional development and inservice education program.

In Conclusion

Numerous issues exist and need resolving in the middle school curriculum. The ultimate goal of instruction is to guide each learner to achieve optimally. Thus, pupils need to perceive interest, meaning, and purpose in ongoing units of study. Pupils in middle schools, as well as other means of grouping learners for instruction, need to achieve in an optimal manner vital understandings, skills, and attitudinal goals.

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1. Arnold, John, "Rhetoric and Reform in Middle Schools", Phi Delta Kappan, March, 1982, pages 453-456.

2. Klingele, William E., Teaching in Middle Schools, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1979, page 3.

3. Roe, William H. and Drake, Thelbert L., The Principalship. New York: The Macmillian Company, 1980, page 15.

GROUPING STUDENTS IN READING

There are numerous means in grouping learners for instruction in reading. Teachers and supervisors need to study and analyze diverse plans. Adopted grouping procedures need to guide students to achieve optimally. Which approaches in placing learners into groups might be utilized to aid student progress in reading?

Homogeneous Grouping

Many teachers group students homogeneously to minimize a wide range of reading achievement. Thus, a more uniform set of learners in demonstrating skills in reading is in evidence. Perfect uniformity will never be in evidence. It is easier to provide for individual levels in reading achievement if the range of achievement is somewhat uniform. Within a classroom, the teacher might then place the top, middle, and slower achievers into three different reading groups. A single series of basal readers may be utilized in teaching and learning. Or, multiple series might also be used in ongoing lessons and units. A major goal of reading instruction is to guide each student, whether in the fast, average, or slower group, to learn as much as possible.

Ediger[1] wrote:

> Teachers may find it easier to teach a given group of learners if homogeneous grouping is in evidence as compared to heterogeneous grouping since the range of achievement will not be as great within a class. However, teachers may not like to teach a class of slow learners as well as those who achieve at a faster rate of speed. The attitude of the teacher, of course,

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[1]Marlow Ediger, Relevancy in the Elementary Curriculum. Kirksville, Missouri: Simpson Publishing Company, 1975, page 162.

may be reflected within learners. Since the range of achievement in a class may be very great in heterogeneous grouping, it may pose a problem for some teachers in providing for individual differences. In certain methods of teaching it may not matter much if heterogeneous or homogeneous grouping is utilized. For example, in individualized reading, each pupil basically selects his own library book to read. He generally selects a book which is on his reading level. His own reading of the library book will involve a pace which should be in harmony with being able to comprehend the contents adequately. Each pupil in a class will read at a different rate of speed. Also, each learner will select a library book which differs in complexity form other library books selected for reading by other children in the classroom. Thus, individual differences can be provided for regardless of capacity and achievement levels of pupils in a class or group.

Advocates of the nongraded school emphasize students being grouped homogeneously based on reading achievement. Thus, teachers need to identify reading progress of students, as early as possible, perhaps in grade one. The top achievers are taught in one room,the next best achievers in the second room, and placing the slowest learners in reading in a separate room.

Adjustments, mo doubt, will need to be made if a learner progresses more rapidly or slowly in reading compared to previous times. He/she may then need to be placed in a different room so that increased homogeneity is in evidence. The teacher in a nongraded school will also have three reading groups within a room. The range of achievement within each group is then further minimized. Flexible grouping needs to be emphasized for each student in reading. The involved learner needs to be placed in a classroom and group within a room whereby continuous progress can take place.

Dufay[2] wrote:

> It is a startling truth: No two snowflakes are alike! But this fact regarding snowflakes is of small consequence to the destiny of our nation. Our greater concern must be for facts relating to a more complex group, infinitely more precious and more crucial to the future welfare of our society --our children. Common sense, as well as experience and intuition, tells us that children are indeed also in the no-two-are-alike category.

Homogeneous grouping in reading instruction does not emphasize:

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[2]Frank R. Dufay, Ungrading the Elementary School. West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, 1966, page 17.

1. mixed achievement levels of students within a set of learners.
2. rigid means of grouping which remain stable in time and space.

Individualized Reading

Individualized reading emphasizes an open-ended curriculum. Thus, the learner may select sequentially which library books to read and to omit. An adequate number of book need to be available to learners to stimulate interest in reading. Also, the library books need to be on diverse levels of reading achievement. Thus, the slow, average, and talented reader may select a library book of personal interest on a level of complexity which meets personal aspirations.

After having selected and read a library book, the involved student then engages in a conference with the teacher to appraise reading achievement. The student and the teacher may appraise the following: interest in the library book, quality of comprehension of content read, and proficiency in oral reading. The teacher needs to record observations made, inherent in the conference.

Veatch[3] wrote:

> One of the advantages of individualized reading over other methods is the elimination of pressure and tension from the student in his attempt to meet the standards of his group. Why should he be compared with anyone else? He is not exactly like anyone else. When group competition is removed and the child is allowed to compete against himself, his own ability becomes the standard by which he is judged and tensions and pressures will give way to a more relaxed and more efficient type of study. The removal of this pressure should also eliminate the development of possible emotional blockages and undesirable attitudes toward reading.
>
> Maximum efficiency in the use of a child's time is another advantage of individualized reading. The student does not drill with a group on words which only certain members in the group do not know. Instead, he spends time only on his own list of words he does not know. The amount of time which the student spends in silent reading is also increased because he need not wait while others are reading orally. Instead, he spends his time in doing his own silent reading or in activities related to this reading.

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[3] Jeanette Veatch, Individualizing Your Reading Program. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959, page 105.

Individualized reading does not emphasize:

1. teachers selecting reading materials for students. Guidance is given only to those learners who are not able to pursue the reading of sequential library books.

2. teachers solely selecting objectives, learning activities, and appraisal procedures.

3. a formal, structured reading curriculum in which scope and sequence has been determined for the learner.

4. the use of specific, measurable objectives.

5. management systems of instruction with sequential learnings determined for students.

Heterogeneous grouping is desired in individualized programs of reading instruction. Regardless of achievement and interest levels, each student can select sequentially those library books which meet personal needs, interests, and abilities.

Language Experience Methods

Language experience approaches in teaching reading emphasize content to be read which comes from the personal experiences of involved students. Too frequently, students read content from textbooks which does not relate to their personal lives. Thus, to initiate and develop a language experience reading curriculum, learners need to have rich personal experiences. These experiences may include the use of excursions on the school grounds and into the larger community, films, filmstrips, slides, illustrations, transparencies and the overhead projector, and games/simulations.

Pertaining to the language experience method in teaching reading, Bush and Huebner[4] wrote:

In the initial stages when children dictate their own stories, the teacher as recorder points out letters that stand for sounds, good words the children have used to express their ideas, and sentence structure. He or she

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[4]Clifford L. Bush and Margaret Huebner, Strategies for Reading in the Elementary School. Second edition. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1979, pages 256 and 257.

helps the child note similarit s in beginning and ending of some words and helps the children build a basic stock of sight vocabulary useful in their reading and writing.

Meaningful experiences with clay, paint, and other materials provide opportunities for further self-expression. As children spontaneously talk about their activities, they are encouraged to write their own stories. They write again in content areas as they record information on topics of interest, contributing to class newspapers or class books. The teacher encourages self-expression and helps children as they ask for spelling, punctuation marks, and other aids to writing. Reading practice is obtained as children read their own writing, each other's, and, finally, the adult writing in published material.

Language experience approaches do not emphasize:

1. the use of textbooks and workbooks in teaching reading.
2. utilization of behaviorally stated ends in teaching and learning.
3. a formal, teacher determined reading curriculum.
4. homogeneous grouping procedures in reading.
5. commerically prepared materials in teaching reading.

Interage Grouping

Interage grouping advocates believe that learners of several age levels should be taught as a group in reading. This harmonizes more with life in society in which individuals of several age levels interact with each other. Educators emphasizing interage grouping state that a single age level of learners in a classroom does not, by any means, guarantee homogeneity in the classroom. A cross age group may be more homogeneous in reading ability as compared to a set of students basically having the same/similar chronological age. Thus, students in grades four, five, and six may be regrouped so that the highest achievers in reading are in one classroom, the next best achievers in the second classroom, the third best attainers in the third room, and so on. The chances are that in any one classroom, there will be students from grades four, five, and six.

Interage age grouping does not stress:

1. Learners of a single chronological age being taught together continuously.
2. separating the school environment from society in terms of age levels.

3. heterogeneous grouping in the reading curriculum.

4. learners meeting grade level standards, based on the individual grade level they are in presently.

5. the self contained classroom, in which a given set of students is being taught continuously in all curriculum areas.

Heterogeneous Grouping in Reading

Numerous educators recommend heterogeneous grouping of students in the classroom. Mixed achievement and capacity levels of learners are then inherent in a given set of learners. The gifted and slower learners may be taught in separate groups in a homogeneous setting. Many reading specialists believe that within a heterogeneous group, the teacher can provide for increased uniformity in achievement within a set of students by grouping learners homogeneously. Thus, three reading groups may be an end result within a room--the fast, the average, and the slower readers.

Pertaining to heterogeneous grouping, Shepherd and Ragan[5] wrote:

> Heterogeneous instructional groups or classes are formed whenever no single factor governs the assignment of pupils to groups and classes. Heterogeneous classes are viewed as containing the same ranges of instructional and individual differences as the total group at that position on the vertical sequence.

ADVANTAGES CLAIMED FOR HETEROGENEOUS GROUPING.

1. The interaction of the various ability levels contributes to all aspects of development and achievement.

2. Heterogeneous groups are more analogous to the relationships in life.

3. The instructional models and participation alternatives available to pupils and teachers are more numerous.

4. Some research studies generally favor social, affective, and maturational advantages for children in heterogeneous groups.

LIMITATIONS CLAIMED FOR HETEROGENEOUS GROUPING.

1. The research evidence concerning achievement generally suggest that there are no differences between the two grouping plans.

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[5]Gene D. Shepherd and William B. Ragan, Modern Elementary Curriculum. Sixth edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1982, pages 57 and 58.

2. The wider range of variations in achievement needs and capacities make it difficult for the teacher to provide for the individualization of instructions.

3. The pupils who learn more slowly are less likely to have opportunities for academic leadership and success because of the presence of brighter pupils.

Heterogeneous grouping does not emphasize:

1. Grouping top achievers in reading in one classroom, the next best achievers in a second room, followed by succeeding levels of slower achievers in other rooms.

2. Tracking learners within a classroom in terms of abiltiy levels. Each student, however, must be guided to achieve optimally in reading.

3. A certain ability level of students learning from each other only, in a classroom. Rather, students of mixed achievement levels are to learn from each other.

Programmed Reading Instruction

Each student achieves on an individual basis when utilizing programmed materials. In using programmed textbooks, the programmer selects objectives for students to attain. Thus, the programmer chooses sequential learnings for learners. A small amount of content is presented to the involved student when reading from a programmed text. Next the learner answers a completion item covering the subject matter read. Generally, the response is written by the student in a separate answer book. Next, the learner uncovers the correct answer to the completion item as provided by the programmer. If the student responded correctly, reinforcement in learning should be in evidence and the learner is ready for the next sequential programmed item. No grouping of students is necessary. Each achieves at his own unique optimal rate. Should the involved student have responded incorrectly, he/she sees the correct answer as provided by the programmer and is still ready for the next sequential linear item in reading. The same/similar procedure in learning is used again and again--read, respond, and check by the involved learner.

Pertaining to Programmed Instruction, Skinner[6] wrote:

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[6] B. F. Skinner, "Reflections on a Decade of Teaching Machines," Teachers College Record, November, 1963.

An important contribution has been the so-called "programing" of knowledge and skills--the construction of carefully arranged sequences of contingencies leading to the terminal performances which are the object of education. The teacher begins with whatever behavior the student brings to the instructional situation; by selective reinforcement, he changes that behavior so that a given terminal performance is more and more closely approximated. Even with lower organisms, quite complex behaviors can be "shaped" in this way with surprising speed; the human organism is presumably far more sensitive. So important is the principle of programing that it is often regarded as the main comtribution of the teaching-machine movement, but the experimental analysis of behavior has much more to contribute to a technology of education.

Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) works in a similar manner as is true of using programmed textbooks. At a computer terminal center, the student, working on an individual basis, types in his/her name on the keyboard. The appropriate lesson number also needs to be typed in. The first item for the student to read appears on the monitor or screen. A small amount of subject matter appears on the screen. This is followed by a question to answer or a completion item to complete. The involved student types in the intended correct response. If the learner responded correctly, he/she is rewarded with the statement "that's good" appearing on the screen. The student is then ready for the next sequential linear item. If an incorrect response was given by the student, the words "try again" may appear on the screen. If a correct response to the same item is then given by the student, he/she progresses to the next sequential item. If incorrect, the learner now sees the correct response on the screen and is also ready for the next sequential task. Continually, the learner reads, responds, and checks using CAI in ordered, sequential steps of learning. Wohlwill[7] wrote:

It is interesting to note the fascination which subject matter characterized by a high degree of internal structure, such as mathematics, logic, and the physical sciences, have exerted on those active in the field of programing. These are, of course, precisely the subjects which lend themselves most readily to the construction of programs consisting of a rational sequence of small steps. Once this ladder has been built for the learner, it is assumed that he will inexorably move upward by dint of successive reinforcements. Thus, the need for any further attention to the learning process involved in the mastery of the material by the student is apparently obviated.

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[7]Joachim Wohlwill, "The Teaching Machine: Psychology's New Hobbyhorse," Teacher's College Record, November, 1962.

It may be noted in passing that this approach implicitly takes for granted the intervention of certain verbal and mediational processes in the learner, whose role in the learning process is hardly recognized, let alone understood. One may well ask by what magic the logical or semantic relations between successive items in a sequence built up by the programer are in fact responded to by the learner. That he may do so (provided he has reached the appropriate level of verbal and intellectual development, and the programer has done his work skillfully and diligently enough) is an undeniable empirical fact, but until some attempt is made to investigate just what the learner does in proceeding along such a sequence, this will remain a purely pragmatic enterprise, built essentially on guesswork.

In Closing

There are numerous means of grouping students for reading instruction. Each plan needs to be studied thoroughly in terms of strengths and weaknesses. Ultimately, a method or combination of methods need selecting to guide each student to achieve as well as possible in reading.

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PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION IN THE CURRICULUM

Many decisions made in the curriculum of life are philosophical. Few choices are made empirically. Thus, in the school/class setting, teachers and supervisors need to choose from among the following which are quite opposite from each other:

1. programmed learning versus learning centers and open space education.
2. basal readers versus an individualized reading program.
3. measurably stated objectives versus general goals in teaching learners.
4. teacher choice versus rather heavy learner input in determining objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures.
5. a textbook and workbook framework in teaching as compared to developing units of study utilizing a variety of media and materials.

It is quite obvious that empirical, objective means can not be utilized soley in selecting objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures.

Experimentalism in Education

Experimentalists believe that one can only know what is experienced. One presently experiences the here and the now. The human being cannot experience the future. But, one reconstructs past learnings to harmonize with the present.

Change is a key concept, according to experimentalists. Scenes and situations in society are not stable nor static. New inventions, technology, and ideas are continually with us. With change in society, new problems arise. Old solutions to the identified problems, in general, do not work. Thus, new data needs gathering in answer to the identified problem. After adequate data or information has been attained, a hypothesis or answer to the identified problem must be generated. The hypothesis is tested in action and revised, if necessary, Learners then need to develop skills in problem solving. Each person in the here and now has problems. These need to be identified and solved.

Experimentalists do not believe in absolute knowledge. Knowledge changes in terms of relevancy, accuracy, and usefulness. New knowledge is needed to offer solutions in problem solving situations. Formalism, rigidity, and dogmatism are three concepts which experimentalists reject in problem solving situations. Knowledge then is rather tentative, flexible, and subject to change. School and society do not reflect stability but change, openess, and newness. John Dewey[1] wrote the following:

> The nature of experience can be understood only by noting that it includes an active and a passive element peculiarly combined. On the active hand, experience is trying--a meaning which is made explicit in the connected term experiment. On the passive, it is undergoing. When we experience something we act upon it, we do something with it; then we suffer or undergo the consequences. We do something to the thing and then it does something to us in return: such as the peculiar combination. The connection of these two phases of experience measures the fruitfulness or value of the experience. Mere activity does not constitute experience. It is dispersive, centrifugal, dissipating. Experience as trying involves change, but change is meaningless transition unless it is consciously connected with the return wave of consequences which flow from it. When an activity is continued into the undergoing of consequences, when the change made by action is reflected back into a change made in us, the mere flux is loaded with significance. We learn something.

Experimentalists look at the consequences of an act rather than apriori statements or first principles. Thus, if a choice is to be made or a hypothesis to be tested, which consequences might accrue? There are no absolutes that one may cling to in the making of decisions. The ultimate decision made is openended. However, the end result should be that identified problems are solved. A change then results in moving away from what is to what should be. A believer in apriori statements believes that prior to any deed or act, universal ideals exist in leading one to make appropriate choices in school and in society. Opposite of apriori philosophies, the experimentalist looks at the consequences involved if one or several paths of action are followed as compared to other possible deeds or acts.

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[1]John Dewey, Democracy and Education, as quoted in Selected Readings in the Philosophy of Education, 3rd Edition, Joe Park, Editor, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1968, Page 87.

Experimentalists believe that the school curriculum should be integrated and not separated from society. Too frequently, the school is an isolated institution from the larger societal arena. Rather, what is relevant and desirable in society must become inherent in the curriculum of the school. Pertaining to the school as special environment, John Dewey [2] wrote:

> Hence a special mode of social intercourse is instituted, the school, to care for such matters.
>
> This mode of association has three functions sufficiently specific, as compared with ordinary associations of life, to be noted. First, a complex civilization is too complex to be assimilated piecemeal, in a gradual and graded way. The relationships of our present social life are so numerous and so interwoven that a child placed in the most favorable position could not readily share in many of the most important of them. Not sharing in them, their meaning would not be communicated to him, would not become a part of the forest. Business, politics, art, science, religion, would make all at once a clamor for attention; confusion would be the outcome. The first office of the social organ we call the school is to provide a simplified environment. It selects the features which are fairly fundamental and capable of being responded to by the young. Then it establishes a progressive order, using the factors first acquired as means of gaining insight into what is more complicated.

In society, group action is involved in identifying and attempting to solve problems. In the school setting also, learners in committees need to select and solve relevant problems. A miniature society is then in evidence. Dualisms need to be avoided, such as separating school from society, or learner interest from effort. If learners perceive interest in learning, they will put forth effort and reveal purpose in ongoing units of study. The learner must not be separated from the curriculum.

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[2] Ibid.

Morris and Pai [3] wrote the following pertaing to experience involving ultimate reality of experimentalism:

> Experience is the ultimate ground for human existence. It is both the originator and the supreme court of whatever we do or say. To put it bluntly once again, whatever reality is is what we say it is, and what we say it is is founded in ordinary experience. Experience is as close as we can get to the "name" of reality. As exasperatingly non-substantive as this may be, it is the best we can do.
>
> Knowing, then, must take on a quite different notation in this philosophy, for we are immediately confronted by the necessity to settle for something much less than fixed and permanent truth as the end point of our epistemological labors. Since our reality is characterized by flux and movement and change, certainly our knowledge cannot be otherwise. We must therefore initially retrain ourselves to recognize that whatever knowledge is possible is temporary and tentative in character. If our conception of truth (knowledge) is ultimately "at the mercy of phenomena" as we experience them, as Dingle has said, then we must be willing to alter our truth and our knowledge as new and variable phenomena come into view.

A. Values, Ethics, and Experimentalism

Experimentalists definitely do not advocate absolutes in the values domain. Values change in time and place. They are applicable within a contextual situation. Values are tested in society and revised, if need be. The consequences of each value to be tested is significant. What might the end results be of each value to be tested? This is a highly significant question to answer on the part of experimentalists. Thus, there are consequences for each value tested within a larger geographical context. Values that have failed can be analyzed and evaluated. A new synthesis might then be in the offing. Values are developed and tested to improve the human situation, or move from the present to what should be. The "what should be" is openended and does not consist of closed, dogmatic ideals.

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[3] Van Cleve Morris and Young Pai. Philosophy and the American School. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1976, pp. 145-146.

Morris and Pal [4] write:

> But what, to ask the final question, ought we to want? To this the Experimentalist has no answer, for it is an ultimate question, and ultimate questions have no answers. Since values are to be found in the context of experience, we will have to find out what we ought to want in this selfsame, relativistic circumstance of ordinary experiencing. There simply is no absolute answer.
>
> The only kind of sensible answer one can give is that people ought to want what they in fact do want when presented with all the alternatives and the knowledge of their consequences--which is no more than saying that a community of human beings employing a kind of public sharing of preferences and values and being intelligent about the whole business, can come to a working notion of the kind of civilization they would like to build, that is to say, the values that they would like to work for and attain. But in the working for and attaining of these values, other values have a tendency to suggest themselves. Humanity's valuing becomes, then, a constant creation of and accommodation to the changing moral environment about it. As the consequences that flow from humanity's principles change, the principles themselves change.

B. Aesthetics and Experimentalism

What is beautiful in the experiences of individuals in society? Why is selected music, art, drama, architecture, poetry, and other forms of literature relevant in comparison to other works involving aesthetics? There are no absolute standards in making judgements involving the aesthetic world, according to experimentalists. Each creative product and endeavor is tested in society. Individuals in society then accept, reject, or are neutral toward the endeavors of artists in diverse fields. Works of art then are tested in society. Artists notice the consequences of their products and processess. What is prized highly in a given place and time might not receive those ratings in other contextual situations, past and present.

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[4] Ibid.

Geiger [5] writes the following involving change in society:

> Nor can liberal education be simply content with efforts to preserve the past; it must take the lead in understanding, criticizing, and directing cultural change. That knowledge of the past contributes mightily to an understanding of the present is indubitable, and the present interpretation takes full account of it. But that the past be cultivated for its own sake is something else again. It is present culture, not past, which is our problem. This does not signify that the more conservative view of liberal education is unconcerned with present-day problems. But it would appear that the spector of discontinuity haunts the traditionalist here as elsewhere. Apparently he would prepare the adolescent by steeping him in historical materials of classic dimensions, and in the grand style, and then turn him loose, as an adult, on modern problems.

Realism in Education

Realists tend to believe that an objective real world exists, independent of any observer. The objective world can be known as it truly is. Opinions and subjective judgements of persons is not important. Rather, through objective methods, the real world can be known through experimentation. Knowledge is held as being tentative until empirical evidence indicates hypotheses needs changing. Rigid controls are necessary in scientific experiments in order that end results are truly objective. A learner needs ample experiences in science and mathematics since these curriculum areas emphasize objectivity and are highly relevant. Individuals live in a world of science. Each must respect natural law to live fully. Thus, principles of science in the curriculum should reflect the desire of learners to abide by the laws of nature. The laws are empirically based and not subject to the personal values and ideals of individuals. Content in science can be described in mathematical terms. Mathematics contains exact and precise subject matter independent of the feelings and beliefs possessed by any one individual.

In addition to science and mathematics being significant in the curriculum, other academic areas also contain objective content. Numerous studies have been made of words that learners need to master in reading.

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[5] George Geiger, "An Experimentalist Approach to Education" (Chapter 5), Modern Philosophies and Education. Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education-University of Chicago Press, 1955, p. 152.

The identified words, gathered from carefully controlled studies indicate those that have high utilitarian values and, if mastered, will cut down tremendously on reading errors among learners. Similar scientific studies have been made pertaining to words that pupils need to master in spelling. The identified words are useful for mastery learning. They consist of a core of words which all should learn to spell to minimize spelling errors on the part of learners. Other curriculum areas which contain objective subject matter for pupil mastery include history (containing precise content on names, dates, places, and events) as well as geography. The latter has emphasized objective geographical phenomenon in time and place. The phenomenon include a study of rivers, valleys, plains, plateaus, oceans, mountains, and seas, among others. Wahlquist [6] wrote :

> Realists generally agree in stressing the need of making philosophy scientific. A major part of the realistic program of reform consists in emphasizing the close relation of philosophy to the sciences. There are those who think that the proper procedure for philosophy is to utilize the method of abstraction perfected in mathematics and made the basis of all scientific investigation. Generally, realists are agreed that the method of scientific analysis is the fundamental approach. The ultimate determinant of the truth of an idea is regarded as something beyond mere personal satisfaction, something external to the personality, and not dependent upon it. Consequently, truth must be discovered by objective means, as free as possible from the subjectivity of the experimenter. The realist is interested in the temperature of the room as registered by a gadget, not the impressions of the persons in the room.

A. Values, Ethics, and Realism

Realists believe that values change. The change, however, is much more gradual, as compared to the thinking of experimentalists. Scientific methods need to be utilized by persons, individually and collectively, to ascertain that which has value. Opinions adhered to by individuals are subjective in content. Agreed upon adopted values need to be independent of person feelings of involved human beings. Thus, objectivity is a key concept to emphasize in valuing according to realism as a philosophy of education. Human beings can discover and attain objective values.

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[6] John T. Wahlquist. The Philosophy of American Education. New York: The Ronal Press Co., 1942, p. 56.

Nature contains laws revealing what is right or wrong. Individuals can discover these laws of nature. To be successful in life, individuals must abide by the laws of nature. Morris and Pai [7] write the following pertaining to natural law:

> We may now speak of a nature-borne law of conduct that controls us quite as insistently and absolutely as does natural and ultimate truth. Natural law in ethical theory is usually called "moral law," and by this term we mean a law of right and wrong, that is embedded in the very structure of nature. Nature contains not just laws of gravity, thermodynamics, energy, and metabolism--that is, laws of the behavior of completely material, subhuman entities; it contains laws of human behavior as well.
>
> In speaking of group behavior, we can cite economic and political laws, like the oft-cited Law of Supply and Demand or Lord Acton's famous law of political life: "Power corrupts; absolute power corrupts absolutely." Likewise in individual behavior, says the Realist, there is a moral law intrinsic to the real, natural world that we must obey if we choose to be human beings. Injunctions against taking human life, lying, and cheating are the kinds of moral taboos that may go unwritten, even unspoken, in human societies; but they are nevertheless constantly operative in our lives, for they persist in time-space and exert their force on the conduct of all people in as immanent a way as the law of gravity. Furthermore, everyone knows these laws, whether we can utter them or not. We live "within" them, if not always "by" them.

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[7] Van Cleve Morris and Young Pai. Philosophy and the American School. 2nd Edition. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1975, pages 238-239.

Morris and Pai [8] further write:

> Now, pure theory in epistemology is the analogue of natural or moral law in ethical discourse. Moral law is that law of behavior which is beyond human utility, which is unconnected with our human interests or desires, and which consists merely in a statement of what the universe requires in the say of conduct. Moralists search for these laws for the same reason scholars search for truth: just to know them. These laws may have no immediate application, but because they are laws of the cosmos we desire to know and hold them for their own sake. If they are seen to apply to this or that circumstance, so much the better; we make use of them. But the first and primary business of ethics is to know and commit oneself to natural and moral value.

Realists then believe there are moral laws independent of the observer's feelings and values. These laws must be discovered and observed. Objectivity and the methods of science are key concepts to emphasize in realism philosophy.

B. Aesthetics and Realism

What is beautiful? Nature has answers to this question. The answers are objective and do not involve human subjectivity. Personal biases should be omitted. The real environment contains beauty in nature. A beautiful bed of roses can be known as they truly are, independent of the observer. The roses do not need modifying and revising to emphasize beauty. They are beautiful in and of themselves.

Compositions in music also possess inherent beauty. Beauty in music is there, independent of observers and can be discovered. Observers therefore agree in time and space, as to what exemplifies beauty in music.

Feats in architecture need to adhere to natural law for a structure to remain endurable. Beauty inherently can reside within these structures. Independently of the observer, architectural endeavors either endure or do not endure. Nature has much to say in terms of which structures adhere to the laws of nature.

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[8] Ibid., page 239.

Wahlquist [9] wrote:

> The realist is impressed with the objectivity of the external world. He holds that knowing is a process of disclosure, not one of creation of the "reals." The real world is not subject to human whim and caprice. Experience is always experience-of, experience plus, reality. Furthermore, reality sets the limits upon experience in both form and content.
>
> The external cosmos is beyond the powers of man to know; the most he can hope for is to learn some of its secrets and to harness its forces. What he learns constitutes the great body of science, the only factual knowledge extant. One thing is sure; the world can go on without the aid of man; in some respects he is a fool to pass judgement upon it. In fact, if he would learn anything about the world, he must go about it objectively, eliminating selfish desires and personal preferences. The more he learns about this external world, in which he has his beginning and the forces of which constitute and control his being, the safer his future will become.
>
> In short, the realist tries to keep himself and his preferences out of the picture. In this respect, he feels that he clashes with both the idealist and the pragmatist. He desires to see things "realistically," or as they actually are.

Existentialism in Education

Existentialists believe that one exists and then purposes need to be found or developed. The individual self then determines his/her own goals in life. There are no absolutes or exact guidelines in life to choose what is right or good. Each person must select and make decisions. To avoid making decisions is to lack being human. The choice then is to go along with the crowd. However, to be human involves making decisions.

The only broad criterion for existentialists to follow in choosing is to make moral decisions in a complete atmosphere of freedom. Others should definitely not decide one's destiny. One did not ask to be born and yet each person must make authentic decisions.

Moral decisions are difficult to make. An environment of awe exists in making authentic choices.

Which objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures should be inherent in an existentialist curriculum? Existentialists believe in each person

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[9] John T. Wahlquist. The Philosophy of American Education. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1942, pp. 365-366.

choosing objectives. In the school setting, the goals may be selected by learners with teacher guidance within the framework of an open-ended curriculum. A highly structured curriculum in which the teacher selects each objective for pupil attainment is definitely frowned upon by existentialists. Much teacher-pupil planning should, of course, be in the curriculum. Learners need to learn to choose and to make decisions, according to existentialists.

The teacher needs to emphasize ends, means, and evaluation procedures which stress the importance of pupils becoming increasingly responsible for personal freedom. The teacher should definitely not be a policeman. Rather, teachers realize their roles as providing for a open environment in order that the learner may select sequential experiences.

The teacher needs to encourage learners to study morality and moral standards in life. Each pupil must be encouraged to stand up for relevant purposes in life. The involved pupil needs to accept the philosophy that no person receives values, inherently, to accept. Rather, each chooses his/her own destiny and values in the curriculum of life. Purposes in learning need to come from the learner, and not from the teacher or others in society.

Learners should realize that significant decisions must be made in life which involve "fear and trembling." The everyday routine decisions made by any one person generally are not moral choices. Choices made which reflect ultimate changes in society in moving toward standards of morality are indeed relevant and goal orientated.

Pupils need to realize that important knowledge is subjective and not objective or science oriented. Each decision made in life involves personal decisions in reaching a goal or goals. Thus, subjectivity in subject matter content is important. Literature, history, poetry, art, music, drama, and architecture are indeed significant curriculum areas. Each person can assist in shaping society in a moral direction when the humanities and the arts become an inherent part of the

personal individual to make significant decision.

Each person makes or breaks himself or herself. No other person or being is responsible for personal choices and decisions made. Each individual then must assume responsibility for consequences of decisions made. Blaming others for what happened in life is meaningless, according to existentialists. Each pupil needs to learn to accept responsibilities for thoughts, deeds, and actions. Bowyer [10] wrote the following involving the thinking of Soren Kierkegaard (1813-1855), an existentialist:

> According to Kierkegaard, truth is not some prefabricated absolute that can be found outside the individual. Truth, he believed, can be attained only by an existing individual, for truth is subjectivity. A description of man's existential situation involves a distinction between man's present state--the way he is--and his potential state--the way he ought to be. There is a moment in the life of the individual from what he is essentially to his existential condition, from essence to existence.

Bowyer [11] further writes:

> Kierkegaard's existentialism emphasizes individualism (not the group or crowd), subjectivity (not science or empirical means of arriving at truth), introspection (looking within the personal self, and feeling (rather than objective facts). Kierkegaard emphasized freedom of the individual rather than logic, mechanism, or determinism.

Existentialism then emphasizes:

1. Individual rather than group endeavors. The individual exists and then chooses his/her own destiny.

2. Subjective ideas rather than the methods of science in making choices and decisions. The individual is the decision--maker.

3. Feelings rather than subject matter which can be tested and proven. The arts then need heavy emphasis in the curriculum. Individuals possess feelings. Decision--making is an awesome responsibility.

4. Each individual makes the self rather than living a predetermined life. The person chooses, makes choices, and decides. There is no predetermined life in which individuals merely do what was preordained prior to the lifespan of any one person.

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[10] Carlton H. Bowyer, Philosophical Perspectives for Education. Glenview, Ill. Scott, Foresmann and Company, 1970. Page 241.

[11] Ibid. Page 240.

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A. Values, Ethics, and Existentialism

The existentialist looks to the self for values. The major criterion to use in the valuing domain is morality. Moral decisions are to be made in a completely free environment. Other beings must not dictate what is ethical or right. If the self looks toward others for ethical decisions, one no longer is human.

Existentialists believe that each person to be human, needs to select that which is ethical. Permitting others to choose for the personal self evades responsible behavior. Each must choose what to do ethically within a contextual situation. Consequences for making choices rests with the chooser. Strumpf[12] writes the following pertaining to the thinking of Jean Paul Sartre, a leading existentialist:

> Man is always obliged to act in a situation, that is, in relation to other persons, and consequently his actions cannot, must not, be capricious, since he must take responsibility for all his actions. Moreover, to say that man must make his essence, invent his values, does not mean that one cannot judge human actions. It is still possible to say that one's action was based either upon error or upon self-deception, for any man who hides behind the excuse of his passions, or by espousing some doctrine of determinism deceives himself. To invent values, says Sartre, means only that there is no meaning or sense in life prior to acts of will. Life cannot be anything until it is lived, but each individual must make sense of it. The value of life is nothing else but the sense each person fashions into it.

The inner directed person making moral decisions and accepting the consequences is important to existentialists. The existentialist does not blame others for outcomes of decisions made since the self made the choices. Choices made may not lead in the direction of making friends. In fact, alienation may occur as a result of speaking out and doing in the morality domain. The existentialist may well be likened to one acting alone and by himself or herself.

What then is ethical to do? The individual must make this decision to be human. No one else can make this choice for the chooser. Self-gratification or focusing upon personal gains does not agree with criterion set forth by existentialists. Rather, what is moral needs emphasis in the decision-making arena.

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[12]Samuel Enoch Strumpf, Socrates to Sartre. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1966, Page 470.

What represents beauty in the natural and social environment? The individual, alone, is responsible in choosing what is beautiful. Responsibilities in making the choices lie with the chooser, alone. Choices made may lead to unhappiness and feelings of loneliness. In making choices, the personal decisions are made in relationship to other human beings, never in a vacuum. Beauty is in the eye of the beholder. Universal standards cannot apply. Each person is unique and experiences life in its everyday tragedies, anxieties, and tensions. Art products need to reflect situations in life experienced by the individual.

Idealism and the Curriculum

Idealists believe in an idea centered curriculum. One cannot know the real world as it truly is, but the observer obtains ideas only pertaining to natural and social phenomenon. Universal ideas rather than specifics are significant, according to idealism, as a philosophy of education. The universal ideas remain rather stable in time and place, and are not subject to continuous change.

Idealists believe that people individually and collectively are finite beings. Each individual is limited as to what can be achieved or attained. However, each person must move away from being finite to become increasingly like the Infinite.

In moving away from finiteness and in the direction of Infiniteness, the person must experience an idea centered curriculum. Mind is real and mind then must be developed. Horne [13] writes the following pertaining to mind being real.

> Mind Is Real. (a) Education, as a human process with a meaning to spel concerning the truth, seizes upon mind as the final useful appendage to the organism in its upward evolution. That which nature by spontaneous variation, the struggle for existence, and the survival of the fit bestows as its last best gift to the organism, education seizes upon to improve, this raising evolution from the unconscious natural to the conscious mental plane. The highest type of selective agency of man,--education, lays hold upon the highest selected product of nature,--mind, for further improvement, thereby indicating mind as the highest type of temporal reality. Education by its emphases practices the saying of Sir William Hamilton, viz., "In the world there is nothing great but man; in man there is nothing great but mind." The school and also the other more general educative agencies of civilization lay all their stress upon mind

[13] Herman H. Horne. The Philosophy of Education. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927, pp. 257-285. (as quoted in Selected Readings in the Philosophy of Education, Third Edition: Joe Park (Editor), New York: The Macmillan Company, 1968; page 146.

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> as the most valuable, the most useful, the most real, element in life. Chosen last as the result of an incalculably long, prehistoric process of natural selection, mind is become first. Education may be pardoned its ontological boldness if it questions reflectively whether the reality it selects as ultimate is not the ultimate reality. Is not reality mental?

There are selected curriculum areas which idealists believe are relevant in guiding pupils in the direction of the Infinite mind. Universal ideals need to be acquired by learners in an idea centered curriculum. Providing needed subject matter include the academic areas of

1. reading, literature, history, and geography.
2. writing including grammar, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, among other skills, needed to present clearly communicated ideas.
3. mathematics and science
4. other curriculum areas, such as health, art, music, and physical education.

Academic areas which assist in developing the mind are superior to other curriculum areas. However, to develop universal ideas, a learner needs to be perceived holistically--intellectually, morally, emotionally, socially, and physically. Human beings need to move beyond the observable to truly understand natural and social phenomena. Theodore Greene[14] writes the following

> My first presupposition, or basic assumption, is that man finds himself in a complex environment which he can in some measure know and to which he can more or less successfully adapt himself. This assumption falls halfway between radical skepticism, on the one hand, and all forms of absolutism or authoritarianism on the other. I believe that man can know something, but not everything; that he can know many things with increasing clarity and assurance, but that he can never, because he is incorrigibley finite, know anything with complete certainty and finality.

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[14] National Society for the Study of Education, Modern Philosophies of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955, page 99.

A. Values, Ethics, and Idealism

The idealist educator emphasizes universal values and ethics be developed by learners. Universal criteria are enduring in time and place. Secular and sacred literature in diverse historical periods of time as well as in numerous geographical regions have emphasized a universal ethic in the Golden Rule. "Do unto others as you would have them do to you" represents a universal standard of conduct.

Idealists advocate that experience of the senses is superficial compared to depth searching in terms of what is valuable. To understand and use the Golden Rule is complex. Understanding the universal ethic and how it operates in diverse situations is not easy. It is even more difficult to develop needed skills in utilizing the Golden Rule in every day experiences in life. Theodore Greene[15] writes the following involving liberalism in ethics pertaining to idealism, as a philosophy of education:

> Liberalism, so conceived, has its own basic values which it must defend at all costs because they condition its vitality and, indeed, its very existence. The specific virtues which it must espouse and the vices which it must combat can usefully be defined in the context of a liberal educational policy. The three basic liberal virtues are (a) serious concern, (b) intellectual and moral integrity, and (c) profound humility; the three corresponding vices are frivolous or cynical indifference, lack of integrity, and arrogance. Teachers should be hired only if they possess these three virtues, in addition to intellectual competence, and they should be fired either for incompetence or for exemplifying any one or more of these three vices. It should also be the prime concern of the school assiduously to foster these virtues and combat these vices in its students as well as to cultivate whatever intellectual and creative talents they may possess.

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[15] National Society for the Study of Education, Modern Philosophies of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955, pages 111 and 112.

B. Aesthetics and Idealism

What makes for beauty in art, music, architecture, and literature, among other creative endeavors of human beings. Human beings are limited or finite. The finite needs to continually move in the direction of the Infinite. What exists in the natural and social environment needs improving in moving away from the limited to the unlimited. The creative artist then attempts to present universal content in artistic endeavors. Products in art reveal beauty in terms of ideals stressed. Ideas pertaining to the natural/social environment need to express artistically that which is enduring and universal. Going beyond what the senses portary is significant. Human beings need to search for beauty. Troy A Organ[16] writes the following:

> Values are intrinisc to the world. The world supports and sustains men as they attempt to increase the values in the universe. The intuitive insights of the artist and the prophet give more accurate glimpses of the real nature of the world than do the hypotheses and the experiments of scientists. Since the view of the world as spiritual is held by those who believe the world to be ideal-like but do not believe in God, as well as by the supernaturalists, the term "idealism" is used to identify this position, even though the word is extremely ambiguous. Among its many uses it denotes both those who believe the world is mind-dependent, that is, reality is always and necessarily the object of a perceiving mind (subjective idealism) and those who believe the world is spiritual rather than physical and does not depend upon being perceived (objective idealism).

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16 National Society for the Study of Education, The Integration of Educational Experiences. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958, page 31.

In Summary

Philosophy of education has much to say in terms of implementing objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures in the curriculum.

The experimentalist educator believes that learners need to identify and solve relevant problems in a changing society.

Realists advocate using methods of science to obtain precise information involving the real world as it truly is.

Existentialists emphasize the importance of the individual making subjective moral commitments within an irrational world.

Idealists believe that universal standards and generalizations need discovering in moving from the finite to the Infinte Being.

Educators need to be students of philosophy. Diverse philosophical strands provide guidance in developing the curriculum.

GROUPING PUPILS FOR INSTRUCTION

There are numerous means of grouping pupils for instruction. Each approach needs to be appraised in terms of providing for pupils individually to realize optimal achievement. Teachers, principals, and supervisors need to study, appraise, and implement that which assists each pupil to achieve optimally.

Groups have common properties. All groups have a background or lack of background which influences their behavior. If children have worked together before, that joint work becomes part of their background. If not, this lack of prior contact will influence their interaction. People, including children, always approach group involvement with some kind of expectation. They may look forward to the experience, believing other people will contribute greatly to their investigation, or they may be unsure of how the group will work because they have little or no data on the members of the group.

In addition to background, all groups develop a participation pattern that exists over time and can be described at any particular moment. In a group of three children, for example, a pattern might emerge in which one child dominates the discussion with the other children listening attentively; in another group of three, there may be an equal exchange of views by each child.

All groups have the property of communication, which refers to how well members understand each other and how well they express their feelings, attitudes, and information. Children with very different cultural and/or experiential backgrounds may have difficulty making themselves understood by others in the group.

All groups exhibit cohesion, the bonds uniting the individual parts. Team spirit and group morale are outward signs of group cohesion.

Groups have the tendency to create standards, or rules of conduct necessary for remaining in the group. In social studies classes, the teacher may establish the standards and responsibilities for the group members. For example, he may appoint a group leader to keep notes that can be shared with the rest of the class. It is essential that everyone who

participates in a group understand its standards, the expectations others have for each person's performance.

People in groups of three or more are often assigned particular roles that define the relationships among members. In these cases, the group has a particular structure and organization. Sometimes the teacher assures a formal structure by assigning roles, and at other times allows the structure to remain informal, with roles and tasks shifting during different lessons. Sometimes the children's backgrounds and varying abilities determine group structure.[1]

The Self-Contained Classroom

In the self-contained classroom, one teacher generally teaches all curriculum areas (except perhaps, music, art, and physical education) to a single set of learners. Thus, the teacher selects objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures in the curriculum areas of language arts, social studies, science, mathematics, and health.

Critics of the self-contained classroom concept believe that subject matter becomes too complex to have one teacher teach the majority of curriculum areas to a single set of pupils. This might be true on the intermediate grade levels, in particular. It follows that no teacher may have the competency or skill to teach so many diverse curriculum areas. Teachers then cannot acquire the needed skills to specialize in teaching a specific area of the curriculum in the self-contained classroom.

Advocates of the self-contained classroom believe that a teacher can do a good job of emphasizing correlated, fused, and integrated means of curriculum organization. These opportunities exist due to the self-contained teacher teaching most of the diverse curriculum areas to a single set of pupils. If

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[1]Francis P. Hunkins, Jan Jeter, and Phyllis Maxey. Social Studies in Elementary Schools. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1982, pages 124 and 125.

the self-contained teacher wishes to, the separate subjects curriculum may also be emphasized. The self-contained classroom may emphasize a flexible means of scheduling for different curriculum areas. The teacher can divide the school day in terms of time needed specifically for each subject matter area. The self-contained teacher may also divide the school day into an even amount of time devoted to each curriculum area, as is true of departmentalized teaching. Flexibility certainly is possible when thinking of time given to each curriculum area in the self-contained classroom.

The teacher in a self-contained classroom has ample opportunities to get to know each pupil well. This knowledge should be utilized to increasingly do a better job of teaching, and thus more adequately provide for each individual learner.

There are selected facets of the self-contained classroom which need criteria to guide their effective implementation. The teacher needs to evaluate if he/she is keeping abreast of recommended procedures in teaching the language arts, social studies, mathematics, science, and health units. Pupils need to achieve optimally in each of these curriculum areas.

Departmentalization and the Teacher

There are elementary schools which departmentalize diverse curriculum areas starting with the first grade level. Generally, departmentalization is emphasized more so on the intermediate grade levels. In departmentalization, the teacher may specialize in the teaching of a specific curriculum area. Thus, the teacher can become highly proficient in teaching language arts, science mathematics, or social studies. Junior and senior high school teachers over the many years, in general, have taught in departmentalized schools.

Criticisms that have been hurled against departmentalization include the following:

1. pupils may perceive diverse curriculum areas as being fragmented and isolated rather than related to each other.
2. teachers may emphasize the teaching of subject matter to the minimizing of attempting to get to know each pupil well.
3. teachers may not plan with other instructors to correlate, fuse, or integrate subject matter.
4. diverse periods in the school day may compartmentalize to an excessive degree that which is taught.

There are selected guidelines which need to be followed when implementing a quality departmentalized plan of instruction:

1. each teacher needs to study and implement recommended trends in his/her area of speciality in teaching pupils.
2. each teacher needs to plan with other instructors when it is feasible and good to correlate, fuse, and integrate diverse curriculum areas.
3. each teacher must attempt to get to know pupils well in order to assist each learner to achieve optimally.
4. depth teaching of content in a specific curriculum area is recommended; however, learners should also develop generalizations pertaining to relating diverse curriculum areas.

Team Teaching and the Teacher

More minds are better than one mind in selecting objectives, learning activities, and appraisal techniques for a given set of pupils, according to the thinking of advocates of team teaching. A team must have at least two teachers

as members. The emphasis here must be upon teachers in a team planning together the objectives, learning activities, and evaluation procedures for teaching-learning situations. Teachers on a team might possess quite different philosophies of education. However, cooperation is a key concept to emphasize in teaming. Thus, one member must not dictate ends, means, and appraisal procedures to other members. If this is done, team endeavors are not in evidence. The ideas of each team member must be respected in planning and implementation sessions. There, perhaps, is no quicker way to defeat teaming approaches than if respect for others is not in evidence. It may be necessary to place emphasis upon basic general agreements on philosophy of teaching approaches, as well as in acceptance of involved personalities when implementing team teaching approaches. A certain amount of harmony is needed between/among team members if success in learning for pupils is to be a relevant end result.

Team members can learn from each other in planning sessions pertaining to teaching-learning strategies. Inservice education may then become an inherent part of team teaching. Each idea presented needs to be analyzed in order to ultimately provide the best in experiences for pupils.

There may be a teaching team in which all members specialize in teaching a specific curriculum area, such as the language arts. An interdisciplinary team may also be involved in teaching a given set of pupils. Thus, a language arts teacher, a science teacher, and a social studies teacher may be members of one team.

Large group instruction, committee work, and individual study provide component parts in team teaching situations. Committee endeavors and individual projects and activities assist in clarifying that which was presented

in large group sequential sessions.

Critics of team teaching state the following:

1. There are selected teachers who do a better job of teaching on an individual rather than a team basis.
2. Large group instruction methods do not provide adequately for inid-vidual differences.
3. It may be difficult for team members to agree upon a given set of objectives, learning activities, and appraisal procedures.
4. Pupils may not adjust well to several teachers as compared to an individual teacher in a self-contained room.

There, of course, are selected advantages given for advocating team approaches in teaching:

1. Members of a teaching team can learn from each other in sessions devoted to planning for teaching.
2. More than one teacher is involved in determining ends, means, and appraisal procedures in the curriculum. An improved curriculum might then result.
3. More than a single teacher is involved in planning learning activi-ties, resulting in a variety of experiences for learners.
4. An integrated curriculum might truly be in the offering when team members represent diverse academic disciplines.

Interage Grouping

There are selected educators who emphasize pupils from several age levels working in a large group and committee endeavors. In society, younger indi-viduals interact with older beings. The school curriculum needs to emphasize

that which harmonizes with societal trends.

The Joplin (Missouri) Plan of reading instruction emphasized interage grouping. Fourth, fifth, and sixth grade pupils were regrouped to form homogeneous units. Thus, a top group of achievers in reading might consist of selected fourth, fifth, and sixth graders being taught in a specific classroom. Pupils chosen for any level of achievement in reading needed to be as homogeneous as possible within a classroom.

One might also perceive a set of first and second grade pupils working together at diverse learning centers. Each pupil then ideally selects sequential tasks to pursue. A learner may then select easier or more complex tasks to pursue depending upon interests, purposes, and abilities possessed. Individual as well as committee endeavors may be selected as tasks at diverse learning centers. Thus, interage grouping may well be in evidence when learning centers are utilized.

Disadvantages given for utilizing interage grouping include the following:

1. State laws are in evidence as to when pupils enter the first grade level. Once this custom has started, it becomes increasingly complex to change to other forms of grouping pupils for instruction.
2. Older pupils may have learned to frown upon working with younger children. Attitudes developed by pupils may be difficult to change.

Advantages which might be listed for interage grouping include the following:

1. It seemingly is more lifelike for individuals to interact with others of diverse age levels. Societal settings tend to encourage interage interactions.
2. Grade levels may mean very little when explaining achievement of

individual pupils. Thus, a third grader, for example, may be a more proficient reader as compared to a sixth grade pupil.

The Nongraded School

The nongraded school philosophy does away with grade level designations. Thus, for example, it is inappropriate to speak about a pupil being in grade one, two, or three. Rather, toward the end of the kindergarten level of instruction, each pupil is evaluated in terms of present reading achievement levels. Teachers with principal leadership attempt to place each pupil for the next school year in terms of being in the top group, middle group, or the slowest group of achievers in reading. If a school has five roomfuls of six year olds, it is easier to group pupils homogeneously in reading achievement as compared to having two roomfuls of these learners only. The latter situation might make it very difficult to have two roomfuls of fairly homogeneous or uniform achievers in reading. With three, four, or five roomfuls of six year olds, educators in charge of grouping procedures can develop rather uniform levels of reading achievement within each classroom. Even within a classroom, further efforts can be made to emphasize homogeneous grouping by dividing learners into three reading groups, with each ultimate group being as uniform as possible in achievement.

Each group of somewhat uniform achievers with teacher guidance attempts to continually realize optimal development. Thus, a top group of readers will increasingly continue to achieve new attainable goals. Slow learners with teacher assistance will not achieve as rapidly, by any means, in reading as compared to rapid achievers. However, slower achievers in reading will also be guided to achieve as much as possible utilizing the best methods of

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teaching possible. Each teacher of reading needs to keep accurate records as to continuous sequential levels of achievement for each pupil. This is necessary so that a learner achieves continually and is successful in learning. The sky is the limit in terms of each pupil's attaining and accomplishing. Pupils, of course, must not be pressured to attain the unachievable.

What happens to twelve year old pupils who have completed six years of schooling beyond the kindergarten level and are reading on the ninth or tenth grade levels? Most of these learners will be entering the junior high years or middle school depending upon the philosophy of the involved school, where involved teachers may emphasize pupils working up to grade level standards. Thus, a talented pupil may actually be reading on the ninth or tenth grade levels, but the teacher might be teaching seventh grade level in the first year of junior high school. There certainly is a problem of sequence here. Ideally, the junior high school English teacher should notice which level the entering student is reading on and provide for continual, sequential growth.

What happens to the learner who completes six years of schooling beyond the kindergarten level in a nongraded school and reads on the fourth grade level of accomplishment? Grade level designations may be somewhat arbitrary in this discussion; however, the reader needs to have certain criteria to utilize when evaluating educational ideas.

The pupil reading on the fourth grade level of accomplishment enters the seventh grade, the first year of junior high school, and may be required to read on grade seven level. There certainly is a gap in terms of where the learner is presently in achievement (fourth grade) as compared to the desired level of the seventh grade, as emphasized by the involved English teacher. A traditional English teacher might have all seventh grade pupils read seventh

grade literature assignments and requirements. Again, it is desirable if the seventh grade junior high school literature teacher accepts the learner where he/she is presently in reading achievement and provides for continuous optimal progress. There are high interest/low vocabulary materials which may be utilized in teaching reading to individual pupils who are reading on an achievement level lower than what is deemed desirable for average achievers.

Ragan and Shepherd[2] list the following common features of most nongraded schools:

1. Continuous progress, vertical and horizontal movement, of pupils is provided for throughout the school year.
2. Curriculum articulation is provided by means of the identification of skills, knowledges, and appreciations to be developed within a content area or areas over a wide span of years without a specific length of time being assigned to any portion of this span.
3. The pupil is positioned in the sequence based on his ability in and achievement of these skills, knowledges, and appreciations without regard for the number of years in school.
4. Extensive reporting and record-keeping systems are developed between teachers and between teachers and parents.
5. A successful experience is provided for each pupil at his position with no failure or retention.

The Dual Progress Plan

Too frequently, pupils experience a self-contained classroom throughout the elementary school years, followed by an abrupt transition to a completely departmentalized, junior high school. Advocates of the dual progress plan of grouping believe that learners on the primary grade levels need to experience a

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[2]William B. Ragan and Gene Shepherd, Modern Elementary Curriculum. Fifth Edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1977, page 115.

self-contained setting. On the intermediate grade levels, pupils may then experience a dual situation, a self-contained classroom for language arts and social studies. Science and mathematics are taught in a departmentalized situation.

A teacher teaching both language arts and social studies may correlate the subject matter of these two curriculum areas. Also, the teacher may become very familiar with traits of learners when teaching language arts and social studies for a longer period of time to a given set of pupils as compared to a departmentalized situation. Flexible scheduling may also be utilized. More or less time may then be given to language arts or to social studies as the need arises.

Since science and mathematics are taught in a departmentalized setting, a teacher may specialize in teaching a specific curriculum area. Thus, a teacher having adequate background of class work in mathematics and an elementary education major may teach mathematics only, in the elementary school. The individual teacher may then specialize in teaching a specific curriculum area. Or, a teacher with a double major, science and elementary education, may then utilize his/her strengths in teaching science only, to elementary school pupils.

Too frequently, in the elementary school, a teacher cannot specialize in teaching a specific curriculum area. The dual progress plan provides opportunities for departmentalized teaching. The dual progress plan of instruction also offers opportunities to teach in a modified form of the self-contained classroom. A teacher may then teach language arts and social studies to a given set of learners.

Heterogeneous Versus Homogeneous Grouping

A long debate has been in evidence for some time pertaining to which

plan of grouping pupils for instruction is better--heterogeneous or homogeneous grouping. In heterogeneous grouping of learners for instructional purposes, mixed capacity and achievement levels are present in a single classroom. Slow, average, and fast learners within a classroom might then experience learning activities cooperatively. Within each classroom, heterogeneously grouped pupils may also be separated into specific achievement level groupings for instruction in reading and other curriculum areas, as this is desirable. However, ample opportunities exist in a heterogeneously grouped classroom for learners of diverse achievement levels to interact and learn from each other in an atmosphere of respect.

Advantages given for emphasizing heterogeneous grouping of learners for instruction include the following:

1. Democracy is in evidence when pupils who possess diverse differences are not segregated from each other, but have ample chances to learn from each other, as well as develop positive attitudes to others.

2. Society emphasizes that individuals interact with each other regardless of capacity and achievement levels. Thus, the school setting must implement strategies in which individuals learn to live together harmoniously with others regardless of capability traits possessed.

Homogeneous grouping emphasizes that pupils similar in achievement be taught together in a single class setting. An entire classroom of pupils may be talented and gifted. Or, an entire classroom of learners may be homogeneous as to being slow learners in reading. Too frequently, it is felt that gifted/talented learners are held back in achievement by those not learning content as rapidly. Toward the other end of the continuum, slow learners may feel frustrated when comparing themselves with high achievers in a heterogeneously grouped

classroom. A homogeneously grouped class is somewhat uniform in terms of pupil progress. Thus, in homogeneous grouping a slow learner may not compare himself/herself with others who progress at a more rapid rate in a specific class setting. Or, a fast learner does not need to be held back in accomplishing due to a teacher gearing instruction toward average achievers or slow learners.

Numerous teachers prefer to teach in homogeneously grouped classrooms. The range of pupil achievement is less in a homogeneously grouped class as compared to a heterogeneously grouped set of learners. It might be easier then to provide for optimal achievement on the part of pupils in a homogeneously grouped teaching-learning situation.

Knezevich[3] wrote:

> After admission and enrollment, pupils must be classified for instructional purposes. Perhaps the most significant change in the classification of pupils came with the grading of the elementary schools in Boston in 1847. Such grading today represents merely a rough attempt at grouping pupils for the purposes of instruction. Further classification is necessary when there are more than enough pupils to fill one grade room or one high school class section, and considerable attention has been devoted to developing methods of grouping that will facilitate the learning or the teaching process.
>
> Heterogeneous grouping can be defined as class sectioning on the basis of chance factors or arbitrary standards unrelated to learning ability or past performance. Homogeneous grouping implies placement of pupils into class sections on the basis of some measure of ability. Because it is impossible to organize a section or grade in which all students have the same kind and quantity of ability or social background, "homogeneous" implies <u>approximately</u> the same kind and quality of ability as measured by some instrument. Stated another way, the range of some type of student ability is less in a homogeneous than in a heterogeneous section.

With increased mainstreaming of selected special education pupils into the

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[3]Stephen J. Knezevich, <u>Administration of Public Education</u>. New York: Harper and Row, 1975, page 425.

regular classroom, less emphasis might be in evidence presently for advocating homogeneous grouping of pupils. Mainstreaming emphasizes placing special education pupils in the least restricted environment. No longer may all special education pupils be segregated from other pupils in the regular classroom. Thus, a blind or partially sighted pupil may receive instruction in the regular classroom setting. Individual Education Programs (IEP's) need to be written for each mainstreamed student. Parents ideally need to approve the IEP's for their child before their implementation. The IEP's consist of sequential measurably stated objectives for each pupil to achieve. Observable evidence is necessary to determine if the specific ends have been attained. There are pros and cons in administering mainstreamed programs of instruction.

Advantages given include the following:

1. Special education pupils are not as separated from other learners as was true previously.
2. A democratic society does not emphasize hierarchical arrangements of individuals.

Disadvantages which might be listed for mainstreaming of pupils may include the following:

1. Teachers in a regular classroom are not educated/trained to teach special education pupils.
2. Much paper work is involved in writing IEP's and providing evidence of learner achievement.
3. It is difficult for the teacher to provide for individual differences when the range of pupil achievement in a classroom is great.

Salzer and Drdek[4] wrote the following:

> The placement of handicapped children in normal classes may be viewed as helpful to all concerned--the pupils with difficulties have the opportunity to learn how to function in a realistic situation, and the other children are helped to realize that classmates with special problems are more like them than they are different. For some of the same reasons it may be argued that the extremely bright and able pupil is also better off in a class of normal children, especially if the classroom program is flexibly organized so that individualized work is possible.
>
> When children who are seriously handicapped in areas of vision, hearing, speech, mental ability, or mobility are placed in regular classrooms, the demands made on the teacher undoubtedly increase. But with the help of resource people who know how to meet the difficulties that arise, the situation can be handled in ways which benefit all the pupils. Another desirable outcome is that the teacher, in working to meet the special needs of one or two pupils, may become more sensitive to the individuality of all children.

Learning Centers and Open Space Education

A flexible means of grouping learners involve the utilization of learning centers. Learning centers may be set up in a single classroom using the services of a single teacher. Learning centers may also be in evidence among diverse sets of pupils taught by a team of teachers in an open space area. Philosophical ideas to support the use of learning centers, among others, include the following:

1. Learners make decisions in terms of what to learn sequentially rather than emphasizing a teacher-determined curriculum.
2. Trust between and among teachers and pupils is necessary if the latter are to truly make choices and decisions.

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[4]Richard T. Salzer and Richard E. Drdek, "Organizing for Learning," Chapter three in Curriculum for the Modern Elementary School, Walter T. Petty (Editor). Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1976, page 50.

3. A humane learning environment exists when pupils are involved in deciding the ends and means of learning.
4. Pupils need to accept consequences of choices made.
5. Each learner needs opportunities to fulfill personal interests rather than the sole purposes of the teacher.
6. Pupils need to make decisions presently rather than waiting for a future optimal adult time to enter the choice making arena.

There are numerous learning centers which the teacher might develop on his or her own. Within the flexible framework of these centers, pupils may select what to learn sequentially. Or, teacher-pupil planning might be heavily implemented to decide upon the objectives and learning activities of each center. No doubt, teacher/pupil planning is significant in choosing tasks for each center. Time factors may make it difficult to advocate involved teacher-pupil planning for each learning center. Even if the teacher determines ends and means for each learning center, the pupil must still have an open-ended curriculum to accept or reject sequential tasks to complete. The pupil ideally must always be a busy learner. There are enough tasks for each learner to continually work on, and yet perceived purposeless tasks can be omitted.

The following are examples of tasks for pupils to select and complete at one learning center:

1. Read a library book of your choosing. Draw a picture pertaining to what was read.
2. Make a relief map showing the setting of the completed library book.
3. View a filmstrip and write five main ideas of what was viewed.
4. Select a picture from the file and write a related poem.
5. Construct a model colonial village.

Any unit of study can be subdivided into various titles for learning centers. Among others, the following, for example, could provide titles for learning centers:

1. a reading center
2. dramatization center
3. poetry writing center
4. speaking center
5. art center
6. music center
7. creative story writing center
8. construction center
9. processing center
10. interviewing center

Each learning center should possess a creative title. Instead of having the following above named titles, a reading center, dramatization center, and poetry writing center, the teacher may creatively have as labels -- "Let's Enjoy Reading," "We Dramatize Our Experiences," and "Let's Write Poetry."

Each center needs to have concrete, semi-concrete, and abstract learning activities to help each learner achieve at an optimal level. Activities encountered should stimulate pupils to develop interest, purpose, and meaning in ongoing units of study.

In Conclusion

There are diverse recommended procedures in grouping pupils for instruction. Each plan needs to be appraised in terms of assisting pupils individually to achieve optimally in intellectual, social, physical, and emotional development. Thus, each of the following plans, among others, in grouping learners for teaching-learning situations needs evaluating:

1. the self-contained classroom.
2. departmentalization.
3. team teaching.
4. interage grouping.

5. the nongraded school.
6. the dual progress plan.
7. heterogeneous versus homogeneous grouping.
8. learning centers and open space education.

Questions for Consideration

1. Visit an elementary school to notice how pupils are grouped for instruction. In your own thinking, which revisions, if any, for grouping learners would you make? Justify your reasons in terms of recommended criteria.
2. Discuss with the classroom teacher, as well as the school principal, which methods of grouping pupils they would recommend if personal choices could truly be made.
3. Survey recent literature involving methods of grouping learners for instruction. Which conclusions did you realize in your survey?

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SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND THE ADMINISTRATOR

There certainly are numerous classifications of environments involving administrators and other school workers. Which kind of organizational climate(s) should be available to guide optimal achievement of all involved in the school and class setting?

Morale of Faculty Members and the Administrator

Certainly, an administrator will desire to develop and maintain high morale within educators in the school/class setting. Thus, feelings of accomplishment are in evidence. Administrators and teachers believe that relevant objectives have been identified and are being attained. A quality curriculum is then in evidence. Faculty meetings, workshops, and other means of inservice education truly result in a program of education which ultimately provides for individual differences among learners. What is emphasized in inservice education is not busy work nor mundane, but significant and salient. Administrators and teachers feel intrinsic motivation due to satisfying programs of staff development which aid students to achieve more optimally.

At the same time, inservice education programs are not taking up an excessive amount of time. Administrators and teachers have their own personal lives to live. Self-actualization goals need to be attained and not institutional or school purposes alone. Both personal needs and the needs of the profession must receive adequate emphasis.

An administrator emphasizing criteria to develop high morale will:

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1. Have input from teachers in terms of goals to be achieved in diverse inservice education programs. Inservice education procedures must aid teachers in solving vital problems in curriculum development.
2. Assist in obtaining needed instructional materials and supplies so that teachers might truly provide for each student in the school/class setting.
3. Work for improved salaries and fringe benefits for teachers.
4. Recognize teachers for guiding learners to achieve well in ongoing lessons and units.
5. Encourage a wholesome school environment dedicated to the growth of faculty members and students.
6. Emphasize teachers living enriched personal lives with adequate opportunities to grow personally and professionally.

Social Interaction

Most individuals seemingly have feelings of wanting to belong within a social setting. Thus, administrators and teachers wish to communicate with others in an informal way. Being close to others socially is a wish and need. When problems and crises arise, the involved person has a need to communicate and be accepted by others. Being able to confide in others is valued highly. Having learners in the school/class setting achieve optimally is very fulfilling to most teachers and administrators. Thus, institutional needs are being emphasized. However, other needs are salient also, such as feelings of belonging and acceptance.

What might an administrator do to guide the self and others to have social needs met?

1. Provide an attractive lounge in which administrators and teachers may converse in an unstructured way.

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3. Listen to personal problems expressed by teachers. Provide sympathetic understanding and emotional support for these problematic areas.

4. Prior to conducting workshop sessions and faculty meetings, provide refreshments for involved participants. Informal get togethers, such as these should aid in reducing feelings of tension and anxiety.

5. Attempt to secure an adequate number of sick day leaves for teachers to minimize feelings of anxiety over absences due to illness.

6. Praise individual teachers for effort put forth in quality teaching endeavors.

The Administrator as a Model

Teachers and other school workers need to observe a model which emphasizes excellance in the curriculum. Thus, the administrator needs to be a sincere individual in putting forth effort as an educational leader. Expecting others in the school/class setting to achieve well without administrative example, may not work in the direction of developing a quality curriculum. The administrator must be a knowledgeable person in the area of developing objectives which are meaningful, purposeful, and provide for individual differences among learners.

A positive administrative model might well emphasize the following:

1. Show leadership in implementing inservice education programs which meet the needs of the self and other school workers. Thus, relevant school problems must be identified and solved.

2. Demonstrate effective teaching procedures to involved teachers.

3. Show interest in the work of each teacher and support service worker.

4. Be polite and friendly to those involved in developing the school curriculum. Assist teachers where possible.

5. Achieve quality rapport with parents, the press, television, and radio. Report to society, achievements and accomplishments of the involved school.

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What to Deemphasize

There are selected cautions for administrators to follow. The cautions pertain to emphasizing the mundane and hindrances in teaching and learning. Which situations might well minimize developing relevance in the curriculum?

1. An excess number of issued bulletins for teachers to read in terms of school announcements.
2. Requests/commands for an excessive number of forms to be completed by teachers and other school workers.
3. Interfering announcements made over the intercom system which disrupt teaching-learning situations.
4. Being insensitive to the needs, interests, and purposes of school workers.
5. Emphasizing achieving the goals of the school and neglecting consideration of human desires, wishes, and wants.

In Closing

Administrators need to be cognizant of developing an educational environment which enables teachers, support personnel, and students to achieve optimally. Factors which optimize and minimize human achievement need to be identified. Goals need establishing which guide in achieving organizational goals of the school as well as personal needs possessed by involved human beings.

MOTIVATION AND THE ADMINISTRATOR

Which situations, environments, or factors motivate leaders in the curriculum? There are diverse theories and hypotheses which attempt to explain energy levels of administrators.

Behaviorism and Administration

Advocates of behaviorism in attempting to explain motivation believe the environment manipulates all human beings. Thus, the individual does not choose or make selections. Rather, forces external to school leaders actually motivate. Rewards in school and in society do the actual motivating.

An administrator reflecting behaviorism encourages teachers and other school workers to establish precise objectives. The sequential, measurable ends are attainable. Learners in the classroom setting with teacher guidance experience activities to achieve the desired objectives. Ultimately, the teacher measures if a learner has/has not achieved the stated ends. Successful learners in goal attainment are provided new experiences to achieve the next sequential objective. Primary (actual prizes) and secondary (tokens to be exchanged for prizes) reinforcers may be given to students for achieving at an appropriate level. Motivated students should be an important end result.

Extrinsic rewards should also be utilized to motivate teachers to do quality teaching. The administrator might then:

1. praise teachers personally for doing well in teaching.
2. give recognition at faculty meetings for outstanding endeavors by individual teachers.
3. send personal letters indicating appreciation to each teacher revealing professionalism in teaching.
4. announce in school assemblies, specific ways in which teachers individually are stimulating students to achieve optimally.

5. attempt to secure merit ratings for teachers. Thus, teachers who achieve well in teaching would receive increased pay for their efforts.

B.F. Skinner is a leading advocate of behaviorism as a psychology of learning which emphasizes reinforcement as a motivator.

Management by Objectives (MBO) and the Administrator

Selected educators recommend goal theory as a means of motivating administrators and other school personnel. MBO is one approach. Administrators and teachers develop specific objectives for a school to attain. The stated ends emphasize priorities for attainment by the school. Effort is then put forth by involved individuals in the school to achieve the precisely written objectives. Motivation is inherent in perceiving clearly developed, cooperatively arranged objectives involving administrators, teachers, and other school workers.

Careful monitoring is involved to determine if the objectives are being attained. If the precise ends are not being attained, effort needs to be put forth to achieve the desired goals. Administrators and faculty members feel encouraged when measurable ends are being attained.

An administrator emphasizing a goals theory to motivate the self and others stresses:

1. teachers and other school workers having input in deciding upon worthwhile goals for a school to attain.

2. objectives written as precisely as possible. Clarity in stated intents is a motivator for involved educators to achieve.

3. establishment of priorities among accepted objectives.

4. resources (money, equipment, and effort) used to achieve precise objectives.

5. monitor to determine if objectives are being achieved, as a given school year progresses.

6. corrections in means may need to be made during the ensuing school year to correct deficiences if objectives are not being attained.

Humanism and the Administrator

An administrator emphasizing humanism as a school psychology realizes that human as well as institutional needs must be met. To achieve school goals is not adequate. Each school worker has personal needs which must, if at all possible, also be fulfilled. Achieving self actualization is a key goal to emphasize, humanists advocate. The late A.H. Maslow stressed the following needs be met by individuals, in general ascending order of complexity so that self-actualization may be a relevant end result.

1. Psychological needs. Adequate food, clothing, and shelter should be available to all individuals.

2. Security needs. Each person needs to possess feelings of safety. Threatening situations for administrators, teachers, other school workers, and students do not make for feelings of security.

3. Belonging needs. Persons individually need to be accepted by others in a group setting. Individuals who are isolates or on fringe areas of being accepted cannot possess feelings of belonging.

4. Esteem needs. Each human being desires to have prestige within a group setting. Thus, an individual is known for positive accomplishments in one or more areas. A person being known as one who has not/cannot achieve is not to likely to be recognized for accomplishment endeavors.

5. Self-actualization needs. Administrators having attained self-actualization have, in degrees, achieved becoming the kind of person desired. Thus, gaps are minimized in terms of wishing a certain ideal and the actual personal achievement of that goal.

Administrators emphasizing need fulfillment attempt to determine his/her own wants, as well as those of school workers. Definite attempts are made to fulfill the identified needs. Humanism as a psychology of motivation is then in evidence. The humanist administrator realizes that lower level needs, such as physiological and safety, must be met before more complex needs (belonging, esteem, and self-actualization are emphasized.

Ultimately, the goals of the school system can be attained more adequately if personal needs of individuals have been met.

Expectancy Theory and the Administrator

How do feelings of expectancy motivate administrators and other school workers? Three dimensions need elaboration in expectancy theory.

The first concept valence emphasizes attractions that an administrator might receive from his/her professional position. Feelings of prestige, job safisfaction, and adequate income may well attract administrators to their professional roles. Certainly, a lack of the above named feelings might well encourage an administrator to seek self-fulfillment in another job, occupation, or vocation. Valences, then emphasizes that which attracts an administrator, or any individual to a specific situation.

The second concept instrumentality emphasizes the probability that a given valence will occur, as perceived by the perceiver. What then are the odds/probability in job satisfaction to occur? The higher the likelihood that a valence (or valences) will occur, the more likely that individuals, administrators included, will develop feelings of motivation. A lack of motivation occurs when one or several significant valences do not accrue. Rewards must be forthcoming for the involved administrator to believe in instrumentality, or success in achieving one or more valences.

The third concept expectancy emphasizes beliefs pertaining to effort put forth in achieving goals. Does hard on the part of the administrator make for success in leadership roles? Or, are too many chance factors in life involved whereby effort put forth in administration makes little or no difference in attempted objectives achieved? Expectancy as a concept implies that engaged effort will pay off in goal attainment. Thus, effort put forth is an intrinsic motivator.

Victor Vroom was an originator of the valence-instrumentality-expectancy (VIE) theory of motivation.

In Conclusion

There are diverse psychologies providing models in motivation for administrators and other school workers.

1. Behaviorism emphasizes positive reinforcement. Rewards may then be utilized to reinforce (strengthen) desired behavior.

2. Management by Objectives (MBO) stresses the significance of precise, clearly stated objectives developed by administrators and school workers in general. Once, measurable objectives have been developed and accepted, human beings are clear in terms of roles and expectations. Motivation increases with clarity of intent and purpose.

3. Humanism places strong emphasis upon meeting needs of administrators and faculty. Each person is motivated in achieving self-actualization. Physiological and safety needs must be met prior to attaining higher order needs such as belonging, esteem, and self-actualization.

4. Expectancy theory emphasizes the importance that beliefs have in motivating human behavior. Thus, valence, instrumentality, and expectancy become salient concepts in motivating human behavior.

Administrators need to study, analyze, and ultimately develop viable,

defensible theories of motivation. To achieve optimally, individuals need to be motivated. Goals of the school and curriculum might then be achieved more comprehensively than would be true of non-motivated individuals.

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